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8086 System Design

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Contents

1. INTRODUCTION

The 8086 family, Intel's new series of microprocessors and system components, offers the designer an advanced system architecture which can be structured to satisfy a broad range of applications. The variety of speed, configuration and component selections available within the family enables optimization of a specific design to both cost and performance objectives. More important however, the 8086 family concept allows the designer to develop a family of systems providing multiple levels of enhancement within a single design and a growth path for future designs.

This application note is directed toward the implementation of the system hardware and will provide an introduction to a representative sample of the systems configurable with the 8086 CPU member of the family. Application techniques and timing analysis will be given to aid the designer in understanding the system requirements, advantages and limitations. Additional Intel publications the reader may wish to reference are the 8086 User's Manual (9800722A), 8086 Assembly Language Reference Guide (9800749A), AP-28A MULTIBUS™ Interfacing (98005876B), INTEL MULTIBUS® SPECIFICATION (9800683), AP-45 Using the 8202 Dynamic RAM Controller (9800809A), AP-51 Designing 8086, 8088, 8089 Multiprocessor Systems with the 8289 Bus Arbiter and AP-59 Using the 8259A Programmable Interrupt Controller. References to other Intel publications will be made throughout this note.

2. 8086 OVERVIEW AND BASIC SYSTEM CONCEPTS

2A. 8086 Bus Cycle Definition

The 8086 is a true 16-bit microprocessor with 16-bit internal and external data paths, one megabyte of memory address space (2**20) and a separate 64K byte (2**16) I/O address space. The CPU communicates with its external environment via a twenty-bit time multiplexed address, status and data bus and a command bus. To transfer data or fetch instructions, the CPU executes a bus cycle (Fig. 2A1). The minimum bus cycle consists of four CPU clock cycles called T states. During the first T state (T1), the CPU asserts an address on the twenty-bit

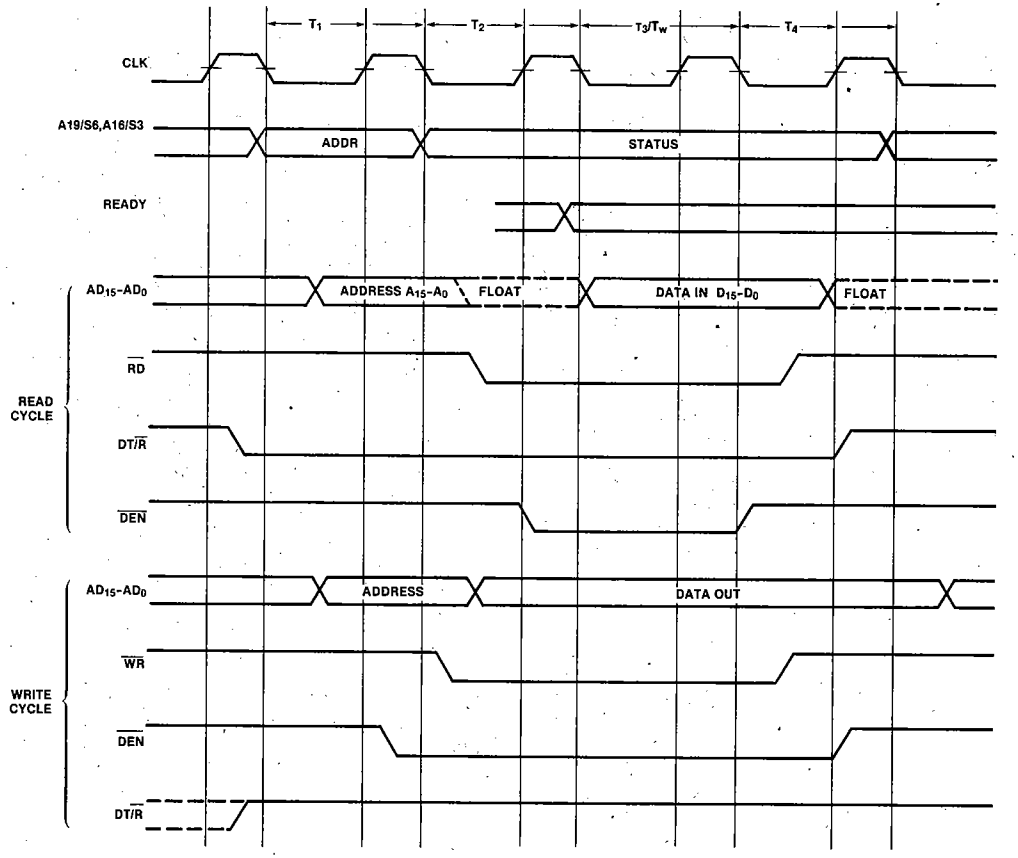


Figure 2A1. Basic 8086 Bus Cycle

multiplexed address/data/status bus. For the second T state (T2), the CPU removes the address from the bus and either three-states its outputs on the lower sixteen bus lines in preparation for a read cycle or asserts write data. Data bus transceivers are enabled in either T1 or T2 depending on the 8086 system configuration and the direction of the transfer (into or out of the CPU). Read, write or interrupt acknowledge commands are always enabled in T2. The maximum mode 8086 configuration (to be discussed later) also provides a write command enabled in T3 to guarantee data setup time prior to command activation.

During T2, the upper four multiplexed bus lines switch from address (A19-A16) to bus cycle status (S6,S5,S4,S3). The status information (Table 2A1) is available primarily for diagnostic monitoring. However, a decode of S3 and S4 could be used to select one of four banks of memory, one assigned to each segment register. This technique allows partitioning the memory by segment to expand the memory addressing beyond one megabyte. It also provides a degree of protection by preventing erroneous write operations to one segment from overlapping into another segment and destroying information in that segment.

The CPU continues to provide status information on the upper four bus lines during T3 and will either continue to assert write data or sample read data on the lower sixteen bus lines. If the selected memory or I/O device is not capable of transferring data at the maximum CPU transfer rate, the device must signal the CPU "not ready" and force the CPU to insert additional clock cycles (Wait states TW) after T3. The 'not ready' indication must be presented to the CPU by the start of T3. Bus activity during TW is the same as T3. When the selected device has had sufficient time to complete the transfer, it asserts "Ready" and allows the CPU to continue from the TW states. The CPU will latch the data on the bus during the last wait state or during T3 if no wait states are requested. The bus cycle is terminated in T4 (command lines are disabled and the selected external device deselects from the bus). The bus cycle appears to devices in the system as an asynchronous event consisting of an address to select the device followed by a read strobe or data and a write strobe. The selected device accepts bus data during a write cycle and drives the desired data onto the bus during a read cycle. On termination of the command, the device latches write data or disables its bus drivers. The only control the device has on the bus cycle is the insertion of wait cycles.

The 8086 CPU only executes a bus cycle when instructions or operands must be transferred to or from memory or I/O devices. When not executing a bus cycle, the bus interface executes idle cycles (TI). During the idle cycles, the CPU continues to drive status information from the previous bus cycle on the upper address lines. If the previous bus cycle was a write, the CPU continues to drive the write data onto the multiplexed bus until the start of the next bus cycle. If the CPU executes idle cycles following a read cycle, the CPU will not drive the lower 16 bus lines until the next bus cycle is required.

Since the CPU prefetches up to six bytes of the instruction stream for storage and execution from an internal instruction queue, the relationship of instruction fetch and associated operand transfers may be skewed in time and separated by additional instruction fetch bus cycles. In general, if an instruction is fetched into the 8086's internal instruction queue, several additional instructions may be fetched before the instruction is removed from the queue and executed. If the instruction being executed from the queue is a jump or other control transfer instruction, any instructions remaining in the queue are not executed and are discarded with no effect on the CPU's operation. The bus activity observed during execution of a specific instruction is dependent on the preceding instructions but is always deterministic within the specific sequence.

Table 2A1

S3	S4	
0	0	Alternate (relative to the ES segment)
1	0	Stack (relative to the SS segment)
0	1	Code/None (relative to the CS segment or a default of zero)
1	1	Data (relative to the DS segment)

S5 = IF (interrupt enable flag)
S6 = 0 (indicates the 8086 is on the bus)

2B. 8086 Address and Data Bus Concepts

Since the majority of system memories and peripherals require a stable address for the duration of the bus cycle, the address on the multiplexed address/data bus during T1 should be latched and the latched address used to select the desired peripheral or memory location. Since the 8086 has a 16-bit data bus, the multiplexed bus components of the 8085 family are not applicable to the 8086 (a device on address/data bus lines 8-15 will not be able to receive the byte selection address on lines 0-7). To demultiplex the bus (Fig. 2B1a), the 8086 system provides an Address Latch Enable signal (ALE) to capture the address in either the 8282 or 8283 8-bit bi-stable latches (Diag. 2B1). The latches are either inverting (8283) or non-inverting (8282) and have outputs driven by three-state buffers that supply 32 mA drive capability and can switch a 300 pF capacitive load in 22 ns (inverting) or 30 ns (non-inverting). They propagate the address through to the outputs while ALE is high and latch the address on the falling edge of ALE. This only delays address access and chip select decoding by the propagation delay of the latch. The outputs are enabled through the low active $\overline{OE}$ input. The demultiplexing of the multiplexed address/data bus (latchings of the address from the multiplexed bus), can be done locally at appropriate points in the system or at the CPU with a separate address bus distributing the address throughout the system (Fig. 2B1b). For optimum system performance and compatibility with multiprocessor and MULTIBUS™ configurations, the latter technique is strongly recommended over the first. The remainder of this note will assume the bus is demultiplexed at the CPU.

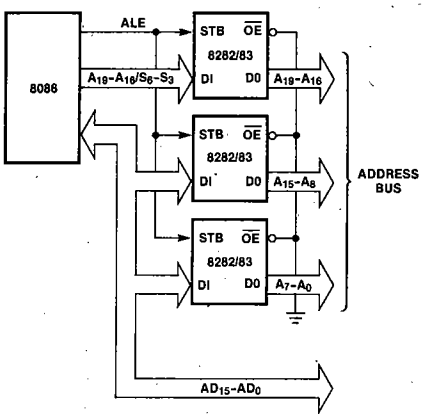


Figure 2B1a. Demultiplexing the 8086 Bus

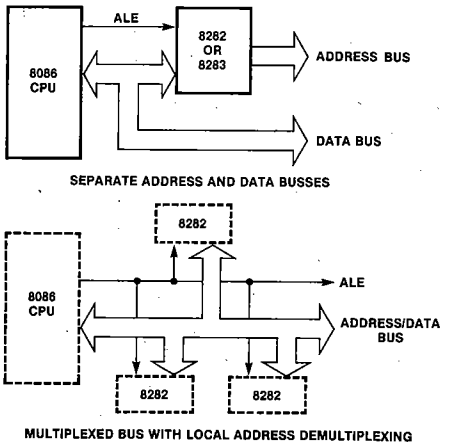


Figure 2B1b.

The programmer views the 8086 memory address space as a sequence of one million bytes in which any byte may contain an eight bit data element and any two consecutive bytes may contain a 16-bit data element. There is no constraint on byte or word addresses (boundaries). The address space is physically implemented on a sixteen bit data bus by dividing the address space into two banks of up to 512K bytes (Fig. 2B2). One bank is connected to the lower half of the sixteen-bit data bus (D7-0) and contains even addressed bytes (A0 = 0). The other bank is connected to the upper half of the data bus (D15-8) and contains odd addressed bytes (A0 = 1). A specific byte within each bank is selected by address lines A19-A1. To perform byte transfers to even addresses (Fig. 2B3a), the information is transferred over the lower half of the data bus (D7-0). A0 (active low) is used to enable the bank connected to the lower half of the data bus to participate in the transfer. Another signal provided by the 8086, Bus High Enable ($\overline{BHE}$), is used to disable the bank on the upper half of the data bus from participating in the transfer. This is necessary to prevent a write operation to the lower bank from destroying data in the upper bank. Since $\overline{BHE}$ is a multiplexed signal with timing identical to the A19-A16 address lines, it also should be latched with ALE to provide a stable signal during the bus cycle. During T2 through T4, the $\overline{BHE}$ output is multiplexed with status line S7 which is equal to $\overline{BHE}$. To perform byte transfers to odd addresses (Fig. 2B3b), the information is transferred over the upper half of the data bus (D15-D8) while $\overline{BHE}$ (active low) enables the upper bank and A0 disables the lower bank. Directing the data transfer to the appropriate half of the data bus and activation of $\overline{BHE}$ and A0 is performed by the 8086, transparent to the programmer. As an example, consider loading a byte of data into the CL register (lower half of the CX register) from an odd addressed memory location (referenced over the upper half of the 16-bit data bus). The data is transferred into the 8086 over the upper 8 bits of the data bus, automatically redirected to the lower half of the 8086 internal 16-bit data path and stored into the CL register. This capability also allows byte I/O transfers with the AL register to be directed to I/O devices connected to either the upper or lower half of the 16-bit data bus.

To access even addressed sixteen bit words (two consecutive bytes with the least significant byte at an even

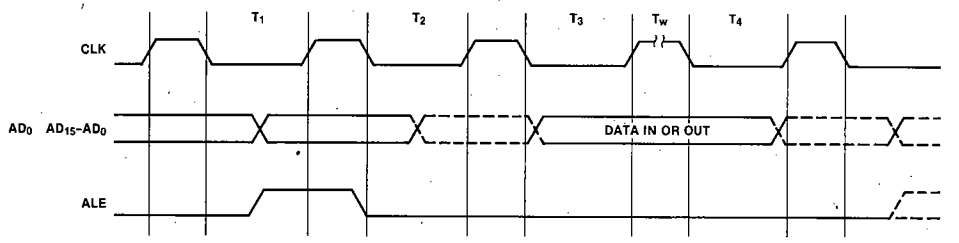


Diagram 2B1. ALE Timing

byte address), A19-A1 select the appropriate byte within each bank and A0 and $\overline{BHE}$ (active low) enable both banks simultaneously (Fig. 2B3c). To access an odd addressed 16-bit word (Fig. 2B3d), the least significant byte (addressed by A19-A1) is first transferred over the upper half of the bus (odd addressed byte, upper bank, $\overline{BHE}$ low active and A0 = 1). The most significant byte is accessed by incrementing the address (A19-A0) which allows A19-A1 to address the next physical word location (remember, A0 was equal to one which indicated a word referenced from an odd byte boundary). A second bus cycle is then executed to perform the transfer of the most significant byte with the lower bank (A0 is now active low and $\overline{BHE}$ is high). The sequence is automatically executed by the 8086 whenever a word transfer is executed to an odd address. Directing the upper and lower bytes of the 8086's internal sixteen-bit registers to the appropriate halves of the data bus is also performed automatically by the 8086 and is transparent to the programmer.

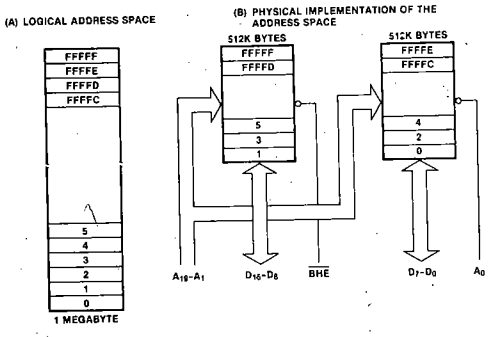


Figure 2B2. 8086 Memory

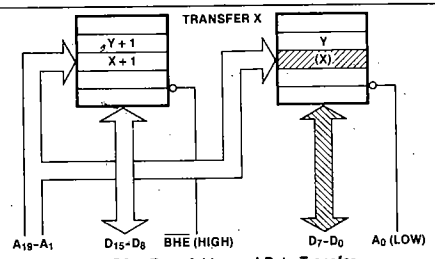


Figure 2B3a. Even Addressed Byte Transfer

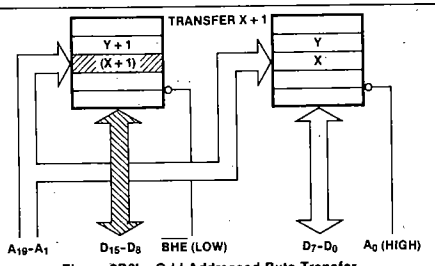


Figure 2B3b. Odd Addressed Byte Transfer

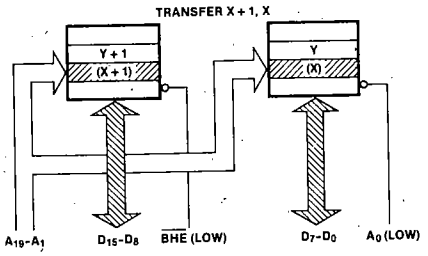


Figure 2B3c. Even Addressed Word Transfer

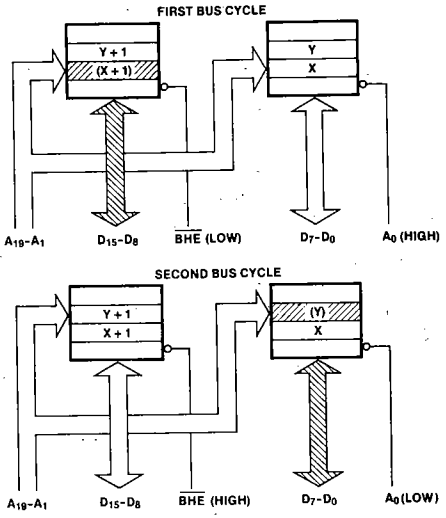


Figure 2B3d. Odd Addressed Word Transfer

During a byte read, the CPU floats the entire sixteen-bit data bus even though data is only expected on the upper or lower half of the data bus. As will be demonstrated later, this action simplifies the chip select decoding requirements for read only devices (ROM, EPROM). During a byte write operation, the 8086 will drive the entire sixteen-bit data bus. The information on the half of the data bus not transferring data is indeterminate. These concepts also apply to the I/O address space. Specific examples of I/O and memory interfacing are considered in the corresponding sections.

2C. System Data Bus Concepts

When referring to the system data bus, two implementation alternatives must be considered; (a) the multiplexed address/data bus (Fig. 2C1a) and a data bus buffered from the multiplexed bus by transceivers (Fig. 2C1b).

If memory or I/O devices are connected directly to the multiplexed bus, the designer must guarantee the devices do not corrupt the address on the bus during T1.

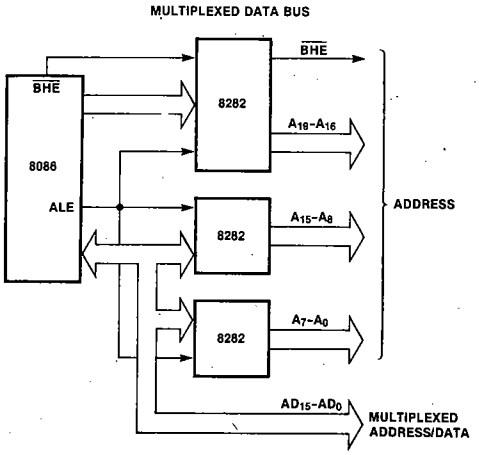


Figure 2C1a. Multiplexed Data Bus

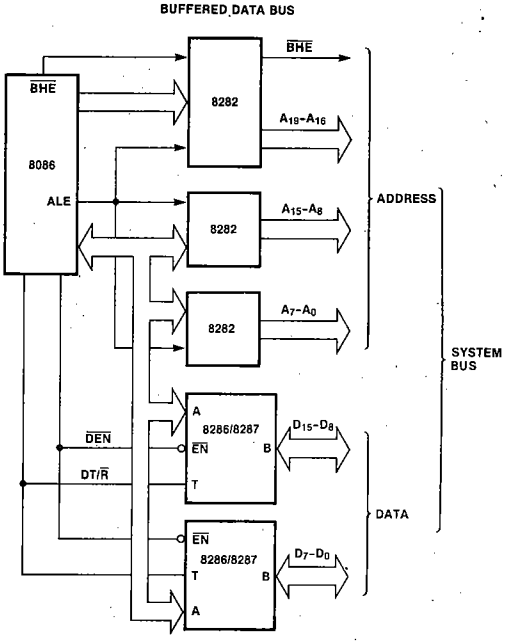


Figure 2C1b. Buffered Data Bus

To avoid this, device output drivers should not be enabled by the device chip select, but should have an output enable controlled by the system read signal (Fig. 2C2). The 8086 timing guarantees that read is not valid until after the address is latched by ALE (Diag. 2C1). All Intel peripherals, EPROM products and RAM's for microprocessors provide output enable or read inputs to allow connection to the multiplexed bus.

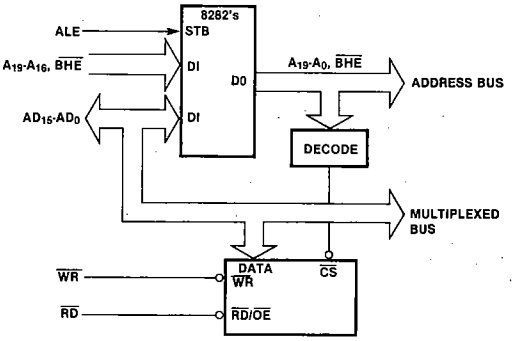


Figure 2C2. Devices with Output Enables on the Multiplexed Bus

Several techniques are available for interfacing devices without output enables to the multiplexed bus but each introduces other restrictions or limitations. Consider Figure 2C3 which has chip select gated with read and write. Two problems exist with this technique. First, the chip select access time is reduced to the read access time, and may require a faster device if maximum system performance (no wait states) is to be achieved (Diag. 2C2). Second, the designer must verify that chip select to write setup and hold times for the device are not violated (Diag. 2C3). Alternate techniques can be extracted from the bus interfacing techniques given later in this section but are subject to the associated restrictions. In general, the best solution is obtained with devices having output enables.

A subsequent limitation on the multiplexed bus is the 8086's drive capability of 2.0 mA and capacitive loading of 100 pF to guarantee the specified A.C. characteristics. Assuming capacitive loads of 20 pF per I/O device, 12 pF per address latch and 5-12 pF per memory device, a system mix of three peripherals and two to four memory devices (per bus line) are close to the loading limit.

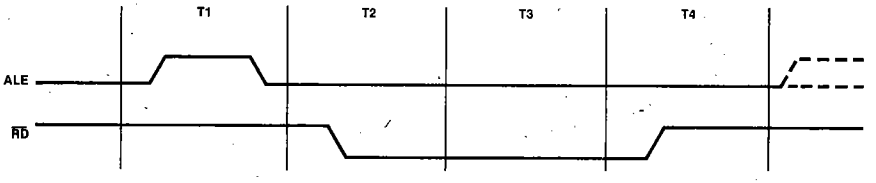


Diagram 2C1. Relationship of ALE to READ

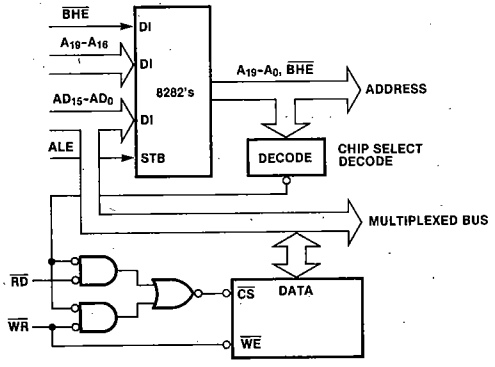
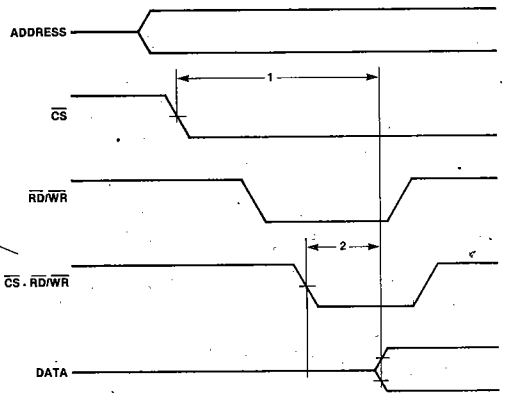


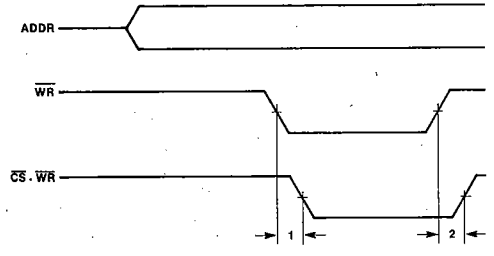
Figure 2C3. Devices without Output Enables on the Multiplexed Bus



1 ACCESS TIME FOR CS GENERATED FROM ADDRESS DECODE.

2 ACCESS TIME IF CS IS GATED WITH RD/WR.

Diagram 2C2. Access Time: CS Gated with $\overline{RD}/\overline{WR}$



1 CS IS NOT VALID PRIOR TO WRITE AND BECOMES ACTIVE ONE OR TWO GATE DELAYS LATER.

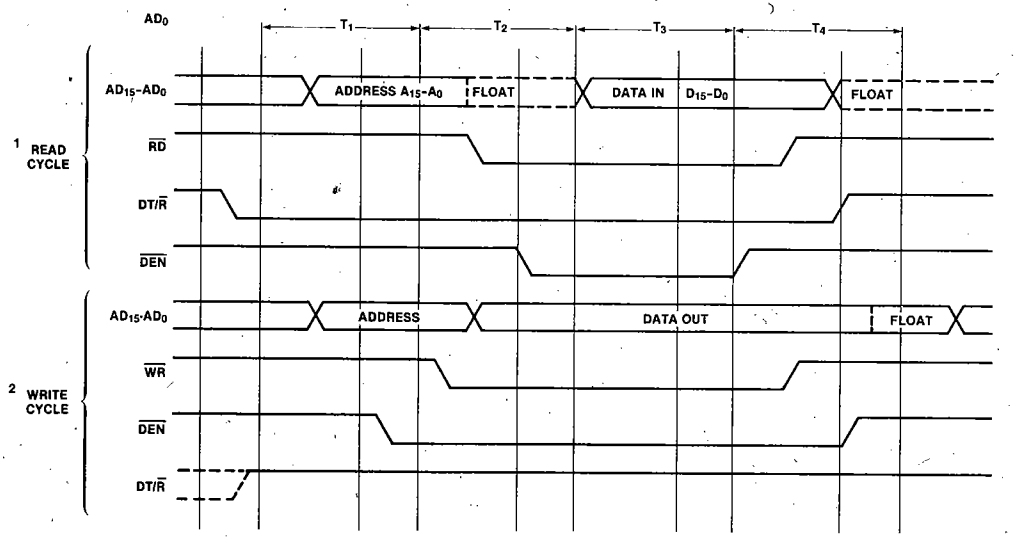
2 CS REMAINS VALID AFTER WRITE ONE OR TWO GATE DELAYS.

Diagram 2C3. CS to $\overline{WR}$ Set-Up and Hold

To satisfy the capacitive loading and drive requirements of larger systems, the data bus must be buffered. The 8286 non-inverting and 8287 inverting octal transceivers are offered as part of the 8086 family to satisfy this requirement. They have three-state output buffers that drive 32 mA on the bus interface and 10 mA on the CPU interface and can switch capacitive loads of 300 pF at the bus interface and 100 pF on the CPU interface in 22 ns (8287) or 30 ns (8286). To enable and control the direction of the transceivers, the 8086 system provides Data ENable (DEN) and Data Transmit/Receive ($DT/\overline{R}$) signals (Fig. 2C1b). These signals provide the appropriate timing to guarantee isolation of the multiplexed bus from the system during T1 and elimination of bus contention with the CPU during read and write (Diag. 2C4). Although the memory and peripheral devices are isolated from the CPU (Fig. 2C4), bus contention may still exist in the system if the devices do not have an output enable control other than chip select. As an example, bus contention will exist during transition from one chip select to another (the newly selected device begins driving the bus before the previous device has disabled its drivers). Another, more severe case exists during a write cycle. From chip select to write active, a device whose outputs are controlled only by chip select, will drive the bus simultaneously with write data being driven through the transceivers by the CPU (Diag. 2C5). The same technique given for circumventing these problems on the multiplexed bus can be applied here with the same limitations.

One last extension to the bus implementation is a second level of buffering to reduce the total load seen by devices on the system bus (Fig. 2C5). This is typically done for multiboard systems and isolation of memory arrays. The concerns with this configuration are the additional delay for access and more important, control of the second transceiver in relationship to the system bus and the device being interfaced to the system bus. Several techniques for controlling the transceiver are given in Figure 2C6. This first technique (Fig. 2C6a) simply distributes DEN and $DT/\overline{R}$ throughout the system. $DT/\overline{R}$ is inverted to provide proper direction control for the second level transceivers. The second example (Fig. 2C6b) provides control for devices with output enables. $\overline{RD}$ is used to normally direct data from the system bus to the peripheral. The buffer is selected whenever a device on the local bus is chip selected. Bus contention is possible on the device's local bus during a read as the read simultaneously enables the device output and changes the transceiver direction. The contention may also occur as the read is terminated.

For devices without output enables, the same technique can be applied (Fig. 2C6c) if the chip select to the device is conditioned by read or write. Controlling the chip select with read/write prevents the device from driving against the transceiver prior to the command being received. The limitations with this technique are access limited to read/write time and limited CS to write setup and hold times.



1 $\overline{DEN}$ IS ENABLED AFTER THE 8086 HAS FLOATED THE MULTIPLEXED BUS

2 $\overline{DEN}$ ENABLES THE TRANSCEIVERS EARLY IN THE CYCLE, BUT DT/R GUARANTEES THE TRANSCEIVERS ARE IN TRANSMIT RATHER THAN RECEIVE MODE AND WILL NOT DRIVE AGAINST THE CPU.

Diagram 2C4. Bus Transceiver Control

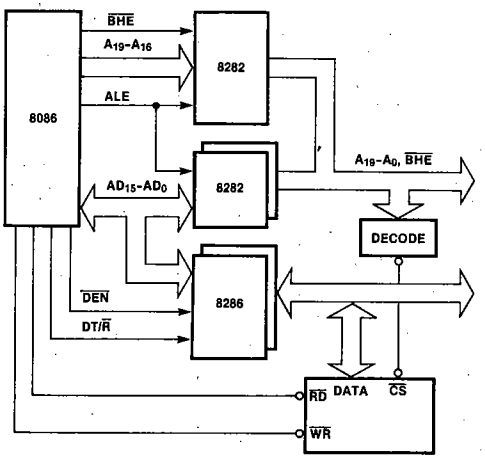


Figure 2C4. Devices with Output Enables on the System Bus

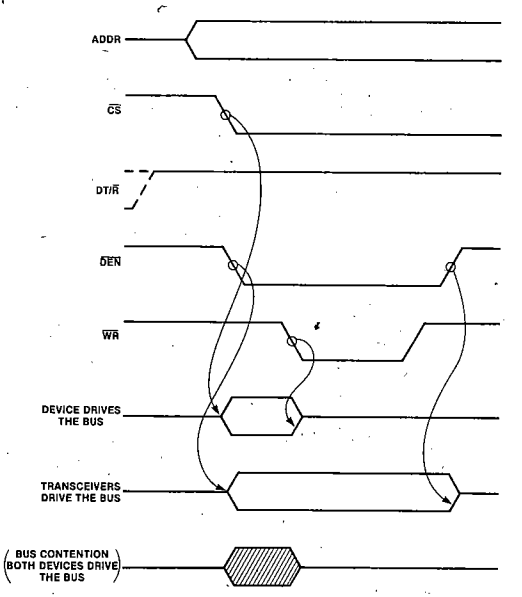


Diagram 2C5.

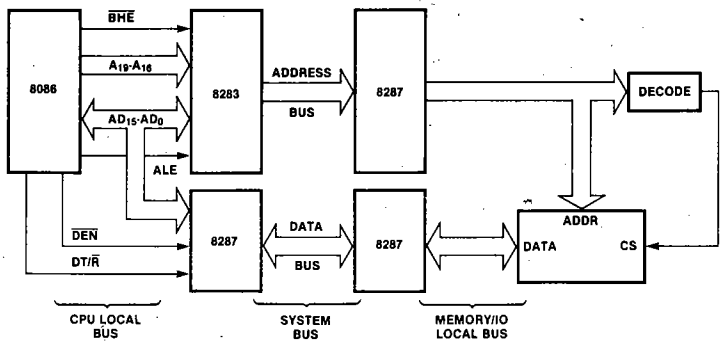


Figure 2C5. Fully Buffered System

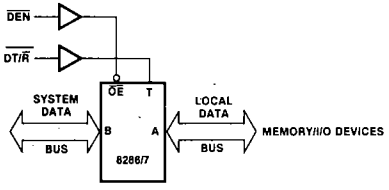


Figure 2C6a. Controlling System Transceivers with DEN and DT/R

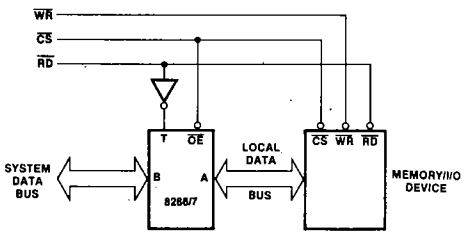


Figure 2C6b. Buffering Devices with OE/RD

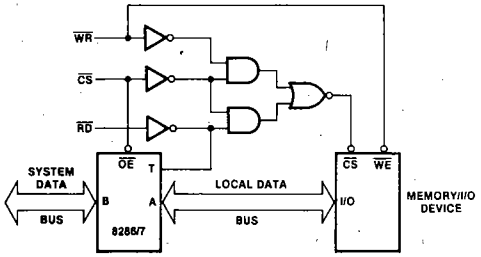


Figure 2C6c. Buffering Devices without OE/RD and with Common or Separate Input/Output

An alternate technique applicable to devices with and without output enables is shown in Figure 2C6d. RD again controls the direction of the transceiver but it is not enabled until a command and chip select are active. The possibility for bus contention still exists but is reduced to variations in output enable vs. direction change time for the transceiver. Full access time from chip select is now available, but data will not be valid prior to write and will only be held valid after write by the delay to disable the transceiver.

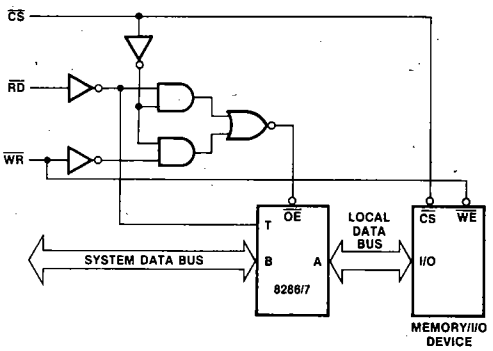


Figure 2C6d. Buffering Devices without OE/RD and with Common or Separate Input/Output

One last technique is given for devices with separate inputs and outputs (Fig. 2C6e). Separate bus receivers and drivers are provided rather than a single transceiver. The receiver is always enabled while the bus driver is controlled by RD and chip select. The only possibility for bus contention in this system occurs as multiple devices on each line of the local read bus are enabled and disabled during chip selection changes.

Throughout this note, the multiplexed bus will be considered the local CPU bus and the demultiplexed address and buffered data bus will be the system bus. For additional information on bus contention and the system problems associated with it, refer to Appendix 1.

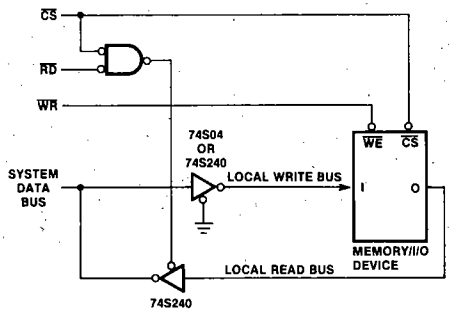


Figure 2C6e. Buffering Devices without $\overline{OE}/\overline{RD}$ and with Separate Input/Output

2D. Multiprocessor Environment

The 8086 architecture supports multiprocessor systems based on the concept of a shared system bus (Fig. 2D1). All CPU's in the system communicate with each other and share resources via the system bus. The bus may be either the Intel Multibus™ system bus or an extension of the system bus defined in the previous section. The major addition required to the demultiplexed system bus is arbitration logic to control access to the system bus. As each CPU asynchronously requests access to the shared bus, the arbitration logic resolves priorities and grants bus access to the highest priority CPU. Having gained access to the bus, the CPU completes its transfer and will either relinquish the bus or wait to be forced to relinquish the bus. For a discussion on Multibus™ arbitration techniques, refer to AP-28A, Intel Multibus™ Interfacing.

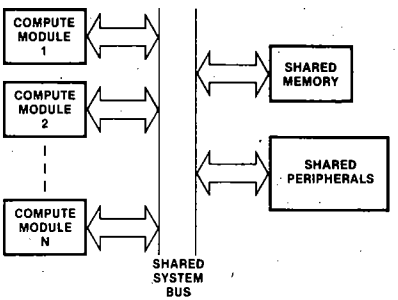


Figure 2D1. 8086 Family Multiprocessor System

To support a multimaster interface to the Multibus system bus for the 8086 family, the 8289 bus arbiter is included as part of the family. The 8289 is compatible with the 8086's local bus and in conjunction with the 8288 bus controller, implements the Multibus protocol for bus arbitration. The 8289 provides a variety of arbitration and prioritization techniques to allow optimization of bus availability, throughput and utilization of shared resources. Additional features (implemented through strapping options) extend the configuration options beyond a pure CPU interface to the multimaster system bus for access to shared resources to include concurrent support of a local CPU bus for private resources. For specific configurations and additional information on the 8289, refer to application note AP-51.

3. 8086 SYSTEM DETAILS

3A. Operating Modes

Possibly the most unique feature of the 8086 is the ability to select the base machine configuration most suited to the application. The MN/$\overline{MX}$ input to the 8086 is a strapping option which allows the designer to select between two functional definitions of a subset of the 8086 outputs.

MINIMUM MODE

The minimum mode 8086 (Fig. 3A1) is optimized for small to medium (one or two boards), single CPU systems. Its system architecture is directed at satisfying the requirements of the lower to middle segment of high performance 16-bit applications. The CPU maintains the full megabyte memory space, 64K byte I/O space and 16-bit data path. The CPU directly provides all bus control (DT/$\overline{R}$, $\overline{DEN}$, ALE, M/$\overline{IO}$), commands ($\overline{RD}$,$\overline{WR}$,$\overline{INTA}$) and a simple CPU preemption mechanism (HOLD, HLDA) compatible with existing DMA controllers.

MAXIMUM MODE

The maximum mode (Fig. 3A2) extends the system architecture to support multiprocessor configurations, and local instruction set extension processors (co-processors). Through addition of the 8288 bipolar bus controller, the 8086 outputs assigned to bus control and commands in the minimum mode are redefined to allow these extensions and enhance general system performance. Specifically, (1) two prioritized levels of processor preemption ($\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT0}$, $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT1}$) allow multiple processors to reside on the 8086's local bus and share its interface to the system bus, (2) Queue status (QS0,QS1) is available to allow external devices like ICE™-86 or special instruction set extension co-processors to track the CPU instruction execution, (3) access control to shared resources in multiprocessor systems is supported by a hardware bus lock mechanism and (4) system command and configuration options are expanded via ancillary devices like the 8288 bus controller and 8289 bus arbiter.

The queue status indicates what information is being removed from the internal queue and when the queue is being reset due to a transfer of control (Table 3A1). By monitoring the $\overline{S0}$,$\overline{S1}$,$\overline{S2}$ status lines for instructions entering the 8086 (1,0,0 indicates code access while A0 and $\overline{BHE}$ indicate word or byte) and QS0, QS1 for instructions leaving the 8086's internal queue, it is possible to track the instruction execution. Since instructions are executed from the 8086's internal queue, the queue status is presented each CPU clock cycle and is not related to the bus cycle activity. This mechanism (1) allows a co-processor to detect execution of an

ESCAPE instruction which directs the co-processor to perform a specific task and (2) allows ICE-86 to trap execution of a specific memory location. An example of a circuit used by ICE is given in Figure 3A3. The first up down counter tracks the depth of the queue while the second captures the queue depth on a match. The second counter decrements on further fetches from the queue until the queue is flushed or the count goes to zero indicating execution of the match address. The first counter decrements on fetch from the queue (QS0 = 1) and increments on code fetches into the queue. Note that a normal code fetch will transfer two bytes into the queue so two clock increments are given to the counter (T201 and T301) unless a single byte is loaded over the upper half of the bus (A0-P is high). Since the execution unit (EU) is not synchronized to the bus interface unit (BIU), a fetch from the queue can occur simultaneously with a transfer into the queue. The exclusive-or gate driving the ENP input of the first counter allows these simultaneous operations to cancel each other and not modify the queue depth.

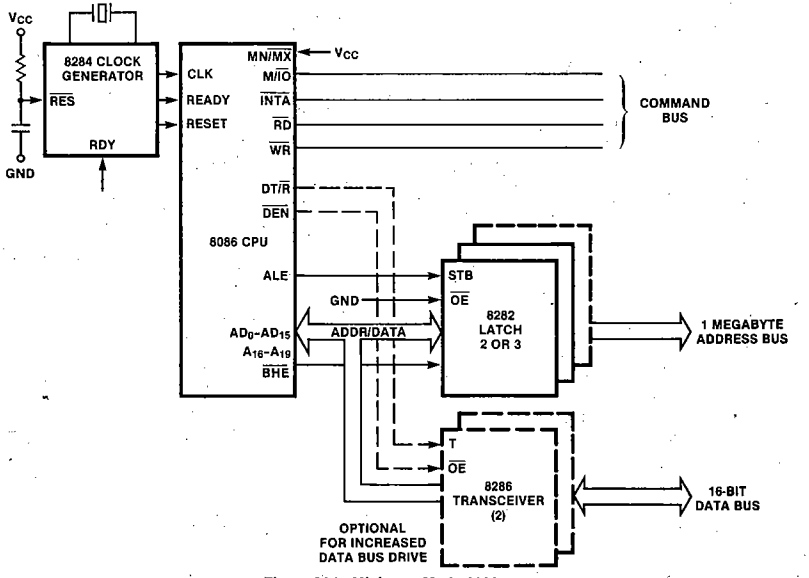


Figure 3A1. Minimum Mode 8086

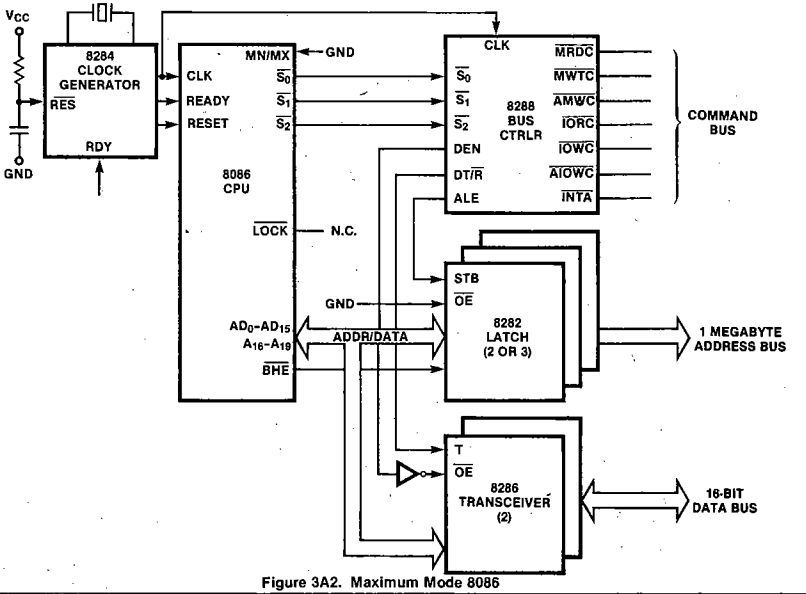


Figure 3A2. Maximum Mode 8086

TABLE 3A1. QUEUE STATUS

QS_1	QS_0	
0 (LOW)	0	No Operation
0	1	First Byte of Op Code from Queue
1 (HIGH)	0	Empty the Queue
1	1	Subsequent Byte from Queue

The queue status is valid during the CLK cycle after which the queue operation is performed.

To address the problem of controlling access to shared resources, the maximum mode 8086 provides a hardware $\overline{LOCK}$ output. The $\overline{LOCK}$ output is activated through the instruction stream by execution of the LOCK prefix instruction. The $\overline{LOCK}$ output goes active in the first CPU clock cycle following execution of the prefix and remains active until the clock following the completion of the instruction following the LOCK prefix. To provide bus access control in multiprocessor systems, the $\overline{LOCK}$ signal should be incorporated into the system bus arbitration logic resident to the CPU.

During normal multiprocessor system operation, priority of the shared system bus is determined by the arbitration circuitry on a cycle by cycle basis. As each CPU requires a transfer over the system bus, it requests access to the bus via its resident bus arbitration logic. When the CPU gains priority (determined by the system bus arbitration scheme and any associated logic), it takes control of the bus, performs its bus cycle and either maintains bus control, voluntarily releases the bus or is forced off the bus by the loss of priority. The lock mechanism prevents the CPU from losing bus control (either voluntarily or by force) and guarantees a CPU the ability to execute multiple bus cycles (during execution of the locked instruction) without intervention and possible corruption of the data by another CPU. A classic use of the mechanism is the 'TEST and SET semaphore' during which a CPU must read from a shared memory location and return data to the location without allowing another CPU to reference the same location between the TEST operation (read) and the SET operation (write). In the 8086 this is accomplished with a locked exchange instruction.

```
LOCK XCHG reg, MEMORY ; reg is any register
                      ;MEMORY is the address of the
                      ;semaphore
```

The activity of the $\overline{LOCK}$ output is shown in Diagram 3A1. Another interesting use of the $\overline{LOCK}$ for multiprocessor systems is a locked block move which allows high speed message transfer from one CPU's message buffer to another.

During the locked instruction, a request for processor preemption ($\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$) is recorded but not acknowledged until completion of the locked instruction. The $\overline{LOCK}$ has no direct affect on interrupts. As an example, a locked HALT instruction will cause HOLD (or $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$) requests to be ignored but will allow the CPU to exit the HALT state on an interrupt. In general, prefix bytes are considered extensions of the instructions they precede. Therefore, interrupts that occur during execution of a prefix are not acknowledged (assuming interrupts are enabled) until completion of the instruction following the prefixes (except for instructions which allow servicing interrupts during their execution, i.e., HALT, WAIT and repeated string primitives). Note that multiple prefix bytes may precede an instruction. As another example, consider a 'string primitive' preceded by the repetition

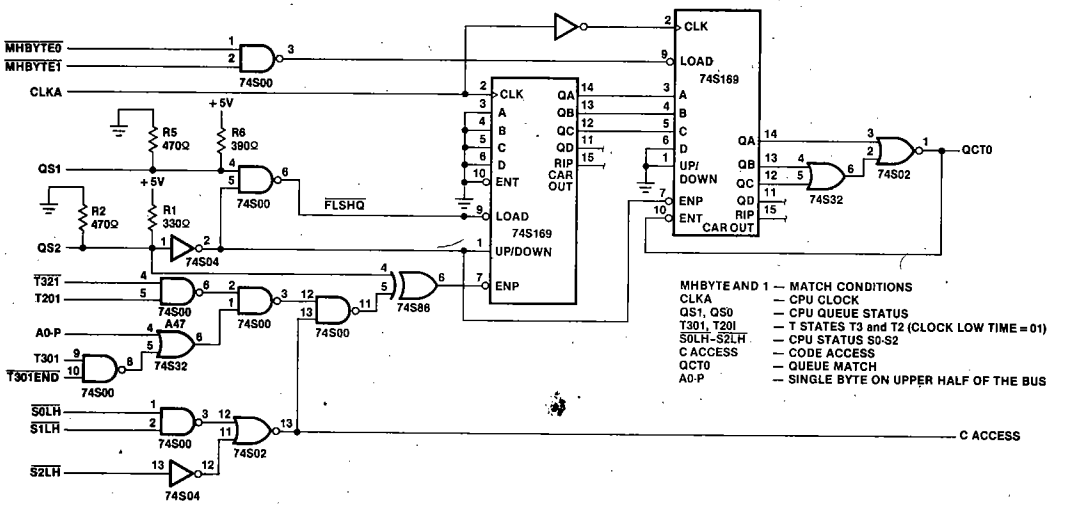


Figure 3A3. Example Circuit to Track the 8086 Queue

prefix (REP) which is interruptible after each execution of the string primitive. This holds even if the REP prefix is combined with the LOCK prefix and prevents interrupts from being locked out during a block move or other repeated string operation. As long as the operation is not interrupted, $\overline{LOCK}$ remains active. Further information on the operation of an interrupted string operation with multiple prefixes is presented in the section dealing with the 8086 interrupt structure.

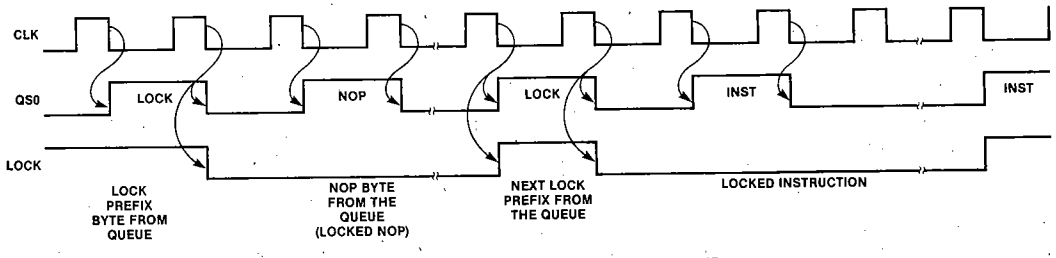
Three additional status lines ($\overline{S0}$, $\overline{S1}$, $\overline{S2}$) are defined to provide communications with the 8288 and 8289. The status lines tell the 8288 when to initiate a bus cycle, what type of command to issue and when to terminate the bus cycle. The 8288 samples the status lines at the beginning of each CPU clock (CLK). To initiate a bus cycle, the CPU drives the status lines from the passive state ($\overline{S0}$, $\overline{S1}$, $\overline{S2} = 1$) to one of seven possible command codes (Table 3A2). This occurs on the rising edge of the clock during T4 of the previous bus cycle or a TI (idle cycle, no current bus activity). The 8288 detects the status change by sampling the status lines on the high to low transition of each clock cycle. The 8288 starts a bus cycle by generating ALE and appropriate buffer direction control in the clock cycle immediately following detection of the status change (T1). The bus transceivers and the selected command are enabled in the next clock cycle (T2) (or T3 for normal write commands). When the status returns to the passive state, the 8288 will terminate the command as shown in Diagram 3A2. Since the CPU will not return the status to the passive state until the 'ready' indication is received, the 8288 will maintain active command and bus control for any number of wait cycles. The status lines may also be used by other processors on the 8086's local bus to monitor bus activity and control the 8288 if they gain control of the local bus.

TABLE 3A2. STATUS LINE DECODES

$\overline{S_2}$	$\overline{S_1}$	$\overline{S_0}$	
0 (LOW)	0	0	Interrupt Acknowledge
0	0	1	Read I/O Port
0	1	0	Write I/O Port
0	1	1	Halt
1 (HIGH)	0	0	Code Access
1	0	1	Read Memory
1	1	0	Write Memory
1	1	1	Passive

The 8288 provides the bus control (DEN, $DT/\overline{R}$, ALE) and commands ($\overline{INTA}$, $\overline{MRDC}$, $\overline{IORC}$, $\overline{MWTC}$, $\overline{AMWC}$, $\overline{IOWC}$, $\overline{AIOWC}$) removed from the CPU. The command structure has separate read and write commands for memory and I/O to provide compatibility with the Multibus command structure.

The advanced write commands are enabled one clock period earlier than the normal write to accommodate the wider write pulse widths often required by peripherals and static RAMs. The normal write provides data setup prior to write to accommodate dynamic RAM memories and I/O devices which strobe data on the leading edge of write. The advanced write commands do not guarantee that data is valid prior to the leading edge of the command. The DEN signal in the maximum mode is inverted from the minimum mode to extend transceiver control by allowing logical conjunction of DEN with other signals. While not appearing to be a significant benefit in the basic maximum mode configuration, introduction of interrupt control and various system configurations will demonstrate the usefulness of qualifying DEN. Diagram 3A3 compares the timing of the minimum and maximum mode bus transfer commands. Although the



1 QUEUE STATUS INDICATES FIRST BYTE OF OPCODE FROM THE QUEUE.

2 THE $\overline{LOCK}$ OUTPUT WILL GO INACTIVE BETWEEN SEPARATE LOCKED INSTRUCTIONS.

3 TWO CLOCKS ARE REQUIRED FOR DECODE OF THE LOCK PREFIX AND ACTIVATION OF THE $\overline{LOCK}$ SIGNAL.

4 SINCE QUEUE STATUS REFLECTS THE QUEUE OPERATION IN THE PREVIOUS CLOCK CYCLE, THE $\overline{LOCK}$ OUTPUT ACTUALLY GOES ACTIVE COINCIDENT WITH THE START OF THE NEXT INSTRUCTION AND REMAINS ACTIVE FOR ONE CLOCK CYCLE FOLLOWING THE INSTRUCTION.

5 IF THE INSTRUCTION FOLLOWING THE LOCK PREFIX IS NOT IN THE QUEUE, THE $\overline{LOCK}$ OUTPUT STILL GOES ACTIVE AS SHOWN WHILE THE INSTRUCTION IS BEING FETCHED.

6 THE BIU WILL STILL PERFORM INSTRUCTION FETCH CYCLES DURING EXECUTION OF A LOCKED INSTRUCTION. THE $\overline{LOCK}$ MERELY LOCKS THE BUS TO THIS CPU FOR WHATEVER BUS CYCLES THE CPU PERFORMS DURING THE LOCKED INSTRUCTION.

Diagram 3A1. 8086 Lock Activity

maximum mode configuration is designed for multiprocessor environments, large single CPU designs (either Multibus systems or greater than two PC boards) should also use the maximum mode. Since the 8288 is a bipolar dedicated controller device, its output drive for the commands (32 mA) and tolerances on AC characteristics (timing parameters and worse case delays) provide better large system performance than the minimum mode 8086.

In addition to assuming the functions removed from the CPU, the 8288 provides additional strapping options and controls to support multiprocessor configurations and peripheral devices on the CPU local bus. These capabilities allow assigning resources (memory or I/O) as shared (available on the Multibus system bus) or private (accessible only by this CPU) to reduce contention for access to the Multibus system bus and improve multi-CPU system performance. Specific configuration possibilities are discussed in AP-51.

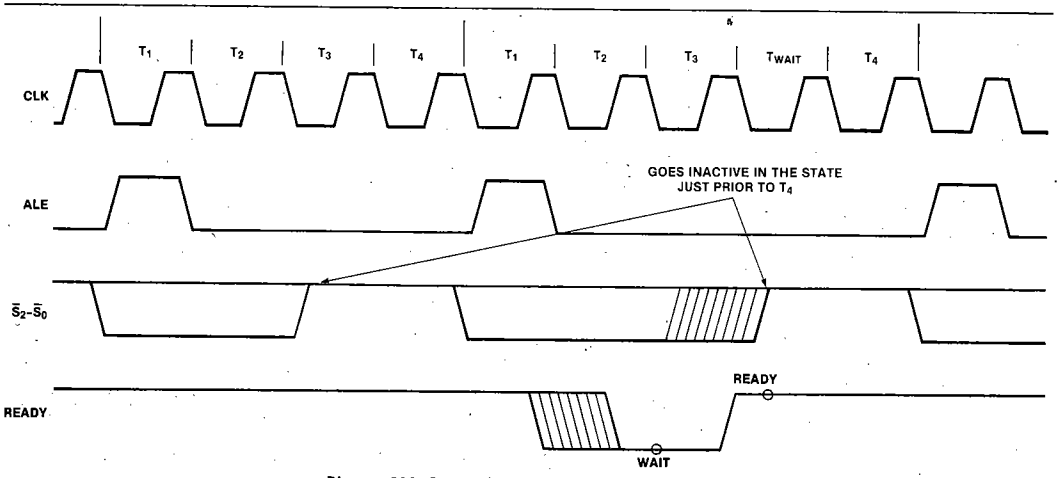


Diagram 3A2. Status Line Activation and Termination

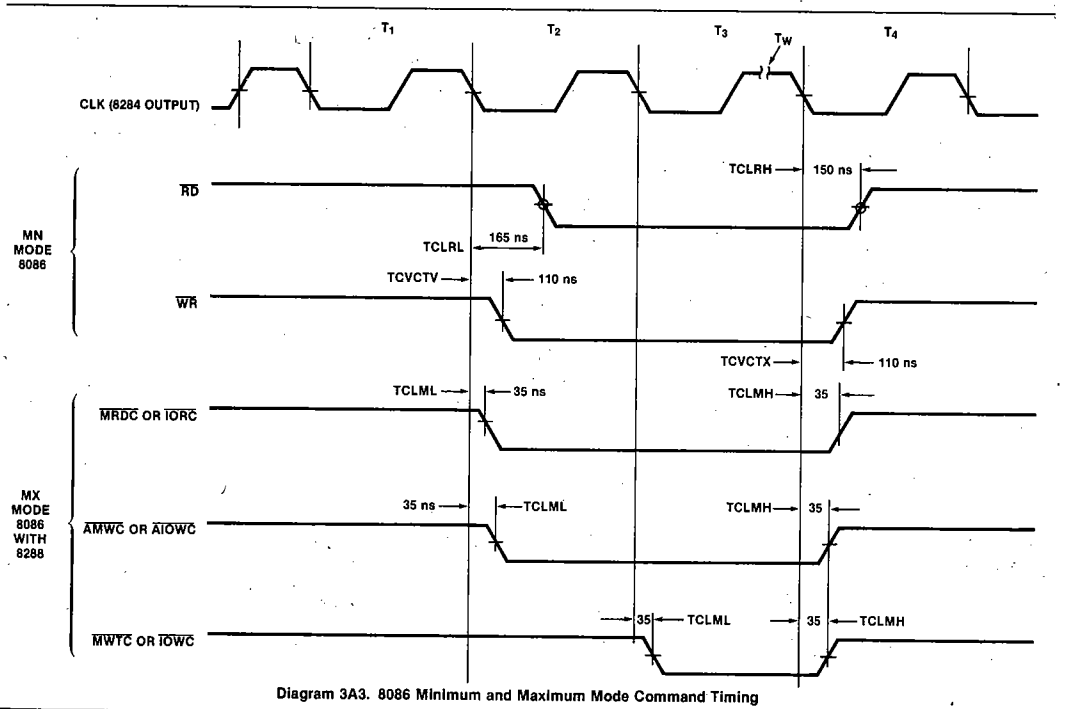


Diagram 3A3. 8086 Minimum and Maximum Mode Command Timing

3B. Clock Generation

The 8086 requires a clock signal with fast rise and fall times (10 ns max) between low and high voltages of −0.5 to +0.6 low and 3.9 to VCC + 1.0 high. The maximum clock frequency of the 8086 is 5 MHz and 8 MHz for the 8086-2. Since the design of the 8086 incorporates dynamic cells, a minimum frequency of 2 MHz is required to retain the state of the machine. Due to the minimum frequency requirement, single stepping or cycling of the CPU may not be accomplished by disabling the clock. The timing and voltage requirements of the CPU clock are shown in Figure 3B1. In general, for frequencies below the maximum, the CPU clock need not satisfy the frequency dependent pulse width limitations stated in the 8086 data sheet. The values specified only reflect the minimum values which must be satisfied and are stated in terms of the maximum clock frequency. As the clock frequency approaches the maximum frequency of the CPU, the clock must conform to a 33% duty cycle to satisfy the CPU minimum clock low and high time specifications.

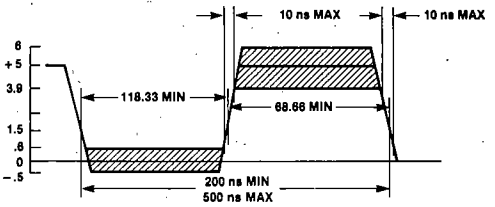


Figure 3B1. 8086 Clock

An optimum 33% duty cycle clock with the required voltage levels and transition times can be obtained with the 8284 clock generator (Fig. 3B2). Either an external frequency source or a series resonant crystal may drive the 8284. The selected source must oscillate at 3X the desired CPU frequency. To select the crystal inputs of the 8284 as the frequency source for clock generation, the F/$\overline{C}$ input to the 8284 must be strapped to ground. The strapping option allows selecting either the crystal or the external frequency input as the source for clock generation. Although the 8284 provides an input for a tank circuit to accommodate overtone mode crystals, fundamental mode crystals are recommended for more accurate and stable frequency generation. When selecting a crystal for use with the 8284, the series resistance should be as low as possible. Since other circuit components will tend to shift the operating frequency from resonance, the operating impedance will typically be higher than the specified series resistance. If the attenuation of the oscillator's feedback circuit reduces the loop gain to less than one, the oscillator will fail. Since the oscillator delays in the 8284 appear as inductive elements to the crystal, causing it to run at a frequency below that of the pure series resonance, a capacitor should be placed in series with the crystal and the X2 input of the 8284. This capacitor serves to cancel this inductive element. The value of the capacitor (CL) must not cause the impedance of the feedback circuit to reduce the loop gain below one. The impedance of the capacitor is a function of the operating frequency and can be determined from the following equation:

$$XCL = 1/2\pi * F * CL$$

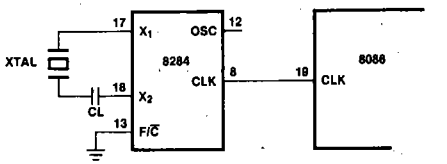


Figure 3B2. 8284 Clock Generator

It is recommended that the crystal series resistance plus XCL be kept less than 1K ohms. This capacitor also serves to debias the crystal and prevent a DC voltage bias from straining and perhaps damaging the crystalline structure. As the crystal frequency increases, the amount of capacitance should be decreased. For example, a 12 MHz crystal may require CL ~ 24 pF while 22 MHz may require CL ~ 8 pF. If very close correlation with the pure series resonance is not necessary, a nominal CL value of 12-15 pF may be used with a 15 MHz crystal (5 MHz 8086 operation). Board layout and component variances will affect the actual amount of inductance and therefore the series capacitance required to cancel it out (this is especially true for wire-wrapped layouts).

Two of the many vendors which supply crystals for Intel microprocessors are listed in Table 3B1 along with a list of crystal part numbers for various frequencies which may be of interest. For additional information on specifying crystals for Intel components refer to application note AP-35.

TABLE 3B1. CRYSTAL VENDORS

f	Parallel/ Series	Crystek[1] Corp.	CTS Knight,[2] Inc.
15.0 MHz	S	CY15A	MP150
18.432	S	CY19B*	MP184*
24.0 MHz	S	CY24A	MP240

*Intel also supplies a crystal numbered 8801 for this application.

Notes: 1. Address: 1000 Crystal Drive, Fort Meyers, Florida 33901
2. Address: 400 Reimann Ave., Sandwich, Illinois

If a high accuracy frequency source, externally variable frequency source or a common source for driving multiple 8284's is desired, the External Frequency Input (EFI) of the 8284 can be selected by strapping the F/$\overline{C}$ input to 5 volts through ~1K ohms (Fig. 3B3). The external frequency source should be TTL compatible, have a 50% duty cycle and oscillate at three times the desired CPU operating frequency. The maximum EFI frequency the 8284 can accept is slightly above 24 MHz with minimum clock low and high times of 13 ns. Although

no minimum EFI frequency is specified, it should not violate the CPU minimum clock rate. If a common frequency source is used to drive multiple 8284's distributed throughout the system, each 8284 should be driven by its own line from the source. To minimize noise in the system, each line should be a twisted pair driven by a buffer like the 74LS04 with the ground of the twisted pair connecting the grounds of the source and receiver. To minimize clock skew, the lines to all 8284's should be of equal length. A simple technique for generating a master frequency source for additional 8284's is shown in Figure 3B4. One 8284 with a crystal is used to generate the desired frequency. The oscillator output of the 8284 (OSC) equals the crystal frequency and is used to drive the external frequency to all other 8284's in the system.

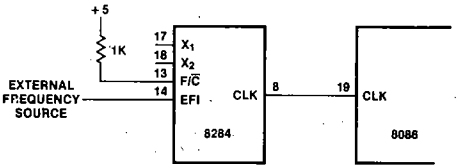


Figure 3B3. 8284 with External Frequency Source

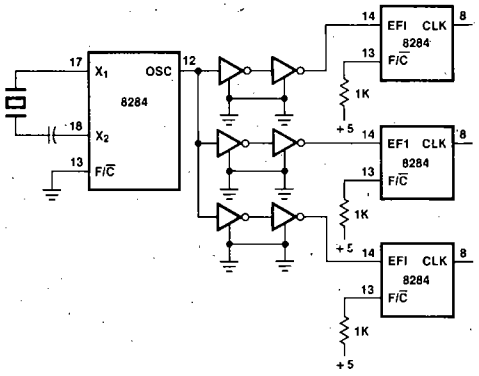


Figure 3B4. External Frequency for Multiple 8284s

The oscillator output is inverted from the oscillator signal used to drive the CPU clock generator circuit. Therefore, the oscillator output of one 8284 should not drive the EFI input of a second 8284 if both are driving clock inputs of separate CPU's that are to be synchronized. The variation on EFI to CLK delay over a range of 8284's may approach 35 to 45 ns. If, however, all 8284's are of the same package type, have the same relative supply voltage and operate in the same temperature environment, the variation will be reduced to between 15 and 25 ns.

There are three frequency outputs from the 8284, the oscillator (OSC) mentioned above, the system clock (CLK) which drives the CPU, and a peripheral clock (PCLK) that runs at one half the CPU clock frequency. The oscillator output is only driven by the crystal and is not affected by the F/$\overline{C}$ strapping option. If a crystal is not connected to the 8284 when the external frequency input is used, the oscillator output is indeterminate. The CPU clock is derived from the selected frequency source by an internal divide by three counter. The counter generates the 33% duty cycle clock which is optimum for the CPU at maximum frequency. The peripheral clock has a 50% duty cycle and is derived from the CPU clock. Diagram 3B0 shows the relationship of CLK to OSC and PCLK to CLK. The maximum skew is 20 ns between OSC and CLK, and 22 ns between CLK and PCLK.

Since the state of the 8284 divide by three counter is indeterminate at system initialization (power on), an external sync to the counter (CSYNC) is provided to allow synchronization of the CPU clock to an external event. When CSYNC is brought high, the CLK and PCLK outputs are forced high. When CSYNC returns low, the next positive clock from the frequency source starts clock generation. CSYNC must be active for a minimum of two periods of the frequency source. If CSYNC is asynchronous to the frequency source, the circuit in Figure 3B5 should be used for synchronization. The two latches minimize the probability of a meta-stable state in the latch driving CSYNC. The latches are clocked with the inverse of the frequency source to guarantee the 8284 setup and hold time of CSYNC to the frequency source (Diag. 3B1). If a single 8284 is to be synchronized to an external event and an external frequency source is not used, the oscillator output of the 8284 may be used to

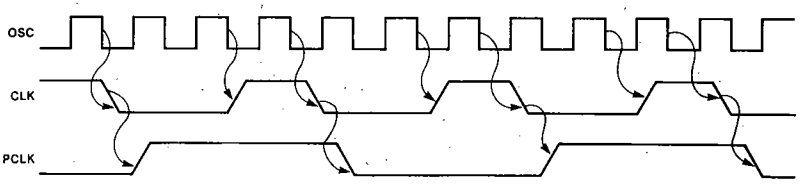


Diagram 3B0. OSC → CLK and CLK → PCLK Relationships

synchronize CSYNC (Fig. 3B6). Since the oscillator output is inverted from the internal oscillator signal, the inverter in the previous example is not required. If multiple 8284's are to be synchronized, an external frequency source must drive all 8284's and a single CSYNC synchronization circuit must drive the CSYNC input of all 8284's (Fig. 3B7). Since activation of CSYNC may cause violation of CPU minimum clock low time, it should only be enabled during reset or CPU clock high. CSYNC must also be disabled a minimum of four CPU clocks before the end of reset to guarantee proper CPU reset.

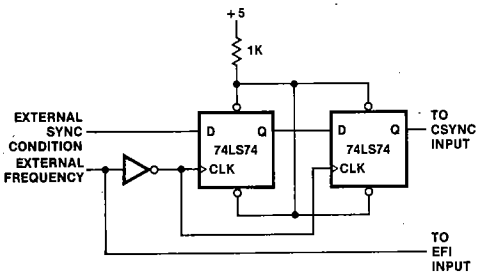


Figure 3B5. Synchronizing CSYNC with EFI

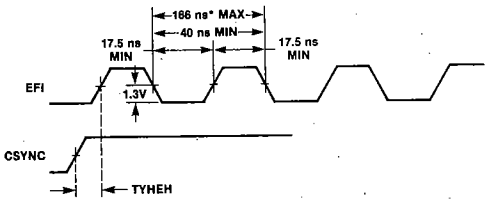


Diagram 3B1. CSYNC Setup and Hold to EFI

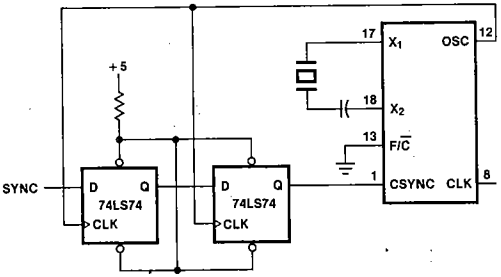


Figure 3B6. EFI from 8284 Oscillator

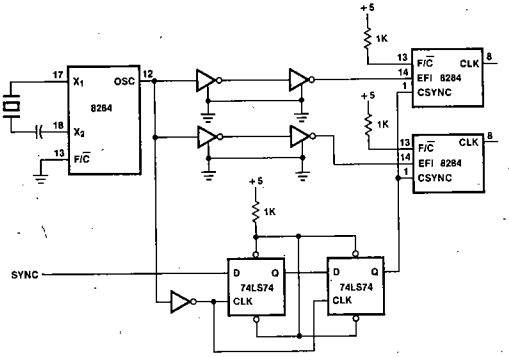


Figure 3B7. Synchronizing Multiple 8284s

Due to the fast transitions and high drive (5 mA) of the 8284 CLK output, it may be necessary to put a 10 to 100 ohm resistor in series with the clock line to eliminate ringing (resistor value depending on the amount of drive required). If multiple sources of CLK are needed with minimum skew, CLK can be buffered by a high drive device (74S241) with outputs tied to 5 volts through 100 ohms to guarantee VOH = 3.9 min (8086 minimum clock input high voltage) (Fig. 3B8). A single 8284 should not be used to generate the CLK for multiple CPU's that do not share a common local (multiplexed) bus since the 8284 synchronizes ready to the CPU and can only accommodate ready for a single CPU. If multiple CPU's share a local bus, they should be driven with the same clock to optimize transfer of bus control. Under these circumstances, only one CPU will be using the bus for a particular bus cycle which allows sharing a common READY signal (Fig. 3B9).

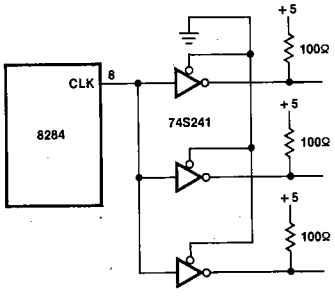


Figure 3B8. Buffering the 8284 CLK Output

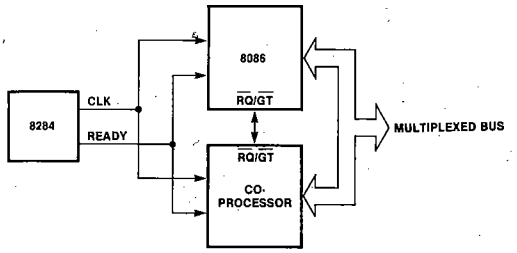


Figure 3B9. 8086 and Co-Processor on the Local Bus Share a Common 8284

3C. Reset

The 8086 requires a high active reset with minimum pulse width of four CPU clocks except after power on which requires a 50 μs reset pulse. Since the CPU internally synchronizes reset with the clock, the reset is internally active for up to one clock period after the external reset. Non-Maskable Interrupts (NMI) or hold requests on $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ which occur during the internal reset, are not acknowledged. A minimum mode hold request or maximum mode $\overline{RQ}$ pulses active immediately after the internal reset will be honored before the first instruction fetch.

From reset, the 8086 will condition the bus as shown in Table 3C1. The multiplexed bus will three-state upon detection of reset by the CPU. Other signals which three-state will be driven to the inactive state for one clock low interval prior to entering three-state (Fig. 3C1). In the minimum mode, ALE and HLDA are driven inactive and are not three-stated. In the maximum mode, $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ lines are held inactive and the queue status indicates no activity. The queue status will not indicate a reset of the queue so any user defined external circuits monitoring the queue should also be reset by the system reset. 22K ohm pull-up resistors should be connected to the CPU command and bus control lines to guarantee the inactive state of these lines in systems where leakage currents or bus capacitance may cause the voltage levels to settle below the minimum high voltage of devices in the system. In maximum mode systems, the 8288 contains internal pull-ups on the $\overline{S0}$-$\overline{S2}$ inputs to maintain the inactive state for these lines when the CPU floats the bus. The high state of the status lines during reset causes the 8288 to treat the reset sequence as a passive state. The condition of the 8288 outputs for the passive state are shown in Table 3C2. If the reset occurs during a bus cycle, the return of the status lines to the passive state will terminate the bus cycle and return the command lines to the inactive state. Note that the 8288 does not three-state the command outputs based on the passive state of the status lines. If the designer needs to three-state the CPU off the bus during reset in a single CPU system, the reset signal should also be connected to the 8288's $\overline{AEN}$ input and the output enable of the address latches (Fig. 3C2). This forces the command and address bus interface to three-state while the inactive state of DEN from the 8288 three-states the transceivers on the data bus.

Table 3C1. 8086 Bus During Reset

Signals	Condition
AD_{15-0}	Three-State
A_{19-16}/S_{6-3}	Three-State
BHE/S_7	Three-State
$\overline{S2}/(M/\overline{IO})$	Driven to "1" then three-state
$\overline{S1}/(DT/\overline{R})$	Driven to "1" then three-state
$\overline{S0}/\overline{DEN}$	Driven to "1" then three-state
$LOCK/\overline{WR}$	Driven to "1" then three-state
$\overline{RD}$	Driven to "1" then three-state
$\overline{INTA}$	Driven to "1" then three-state
ALE	0
HLDA	0
$\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT0}$	1
$\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT1}$	1
QS0	0
QS1	0

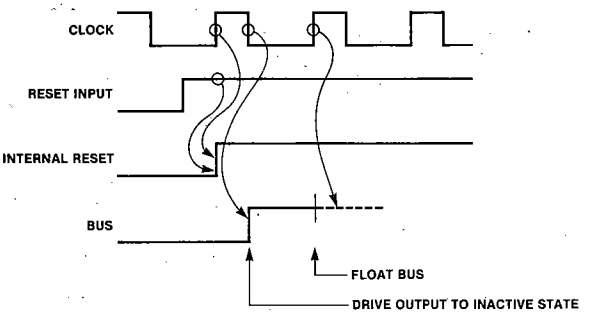


Figure 3C1. 8086 Bus Conditioning on Reset

TABLE 3C2. 8288 OUTPUTS DURING PASSIVE MODE

ALE	0
DEN	0
DT/$\overline{R}$	1
MCE/$\overline{PDEN}$	0/1
COMMANDS	1

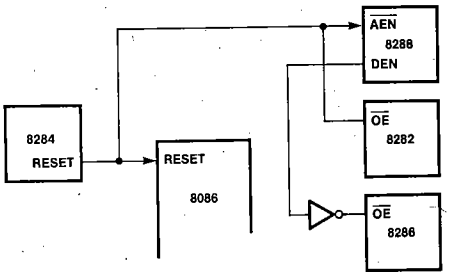


Figure 3C2. Reset Disable for Max Mode 8086 Bus Interface

For multiple processor systems using arbitration of a multimaster bus, the system reset should be connected to the $\overline{INIT}$ input of the 8289 bus arbiter in addition to the 8284 reset input (Fig. 3C3). The low active $\overline{INIT}$ input forces all 8289 outputs to their inactive state. The inactive state of the 8289 $\overline{AEN}$ output will force the 8288 to three-state the command outputs and the address latches to three-state the address bus interface. DEN inactive from the 8288 will three-state the data bus interface. For the multimaster CPU configuration, the reset should be common to all CPU's (8289's and 8284's) and satisfy the maximum of either the CPU reset requirements or 3 TBLBL (3 8289 bus clock times) + 3 TCLCL (3 8086 clock cycle times) to satisfy 8289 reset requirements.

If the 8288 command outputs are three-stated during reset, the command lines should be pulled up to V_{CC} through 2.2K ohm resistors.

The reset signal to the 8086 can be generated by the 8284. The 8284 has a schmitt trigger input ($\overline{RES}$) for generating reset from a low active external reset. The hysteresis specified in the 8284 data sheet implies that at least .25 volts will separate the 0 and 1 switching point of the 8284 reset input. Inputs without hysteresis will switch from low to high and high to low at approximately the same voltage threshold. The inputs are guaranteed to switch at specified low and high voltages (VIL and VIH) but the actual switching point is anywhere in-between. Since VIL min is specified at .8 volts, the hysteresis guarantees that the reset will be active until the input reaches at least 1.05 volts. A reset will not be recognized until the input drops at least .25 volts below the reset inputs VIH of 2.6 volts.

To guarantee reset from power up, the reset input must remain below 1.05 volts for 50 microseconds after V_{CC} has reached the minimum supply voltage of 4.5 volts. The hysteresis allows the reset input to be driven by a simple RC circuit as shown in Figure 3C4. The calculated RC value does not include time for the power supply to reach 4.5 volts or the charge accumulated during this interval. Without the hysteresis, the reset output might oscillate as the input voltage passes through the switching voltage of the input. The calculated RC value provides the minimum required reset period of 50 microseconds for 8284's that switch at the 1.05 volt level and a reset period of approximately 162 microseconds for 8284's that switch at the 2.6 volt level. If tighter tolerance between the minimum and maximum reset times is necessary, the reset circuit shown in Figure 3C5 might be used rather than the simple RC circuit. This circuit provides a constant current source and a linear charge rate on the capacitor rather than the inverse exponential charge rate of the RC circuit. The maximum reset period for this implementation is 124 microseconds.

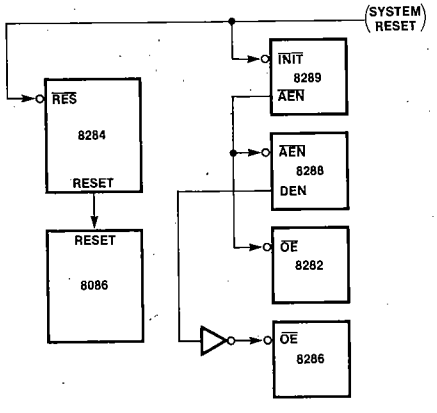


Figure 3C3. Reset Disable of for Max Mode 8086 Bus Interface in Multi CPU System

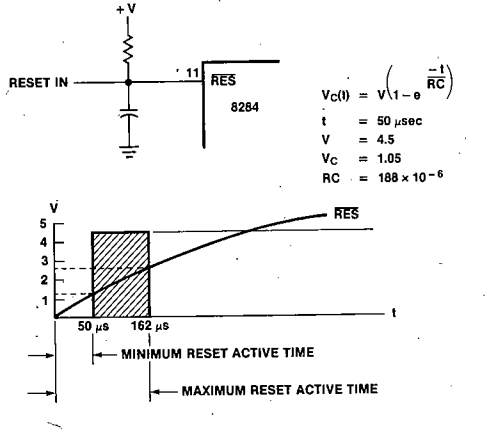


Figure 3C4. 8284 Reset Circuit

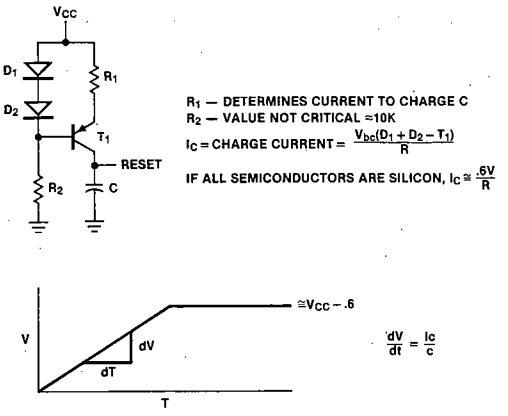


Figure 3C5. Constant Current Power-On Reset Circuit

The 8284 synchronizes the reset input with the CPU clock to generate the RESET signal to the CPU (Fig. 3C6). The output is also available as a general reset to the entire system. The reset has no effect on any clock circuits in the 8284.

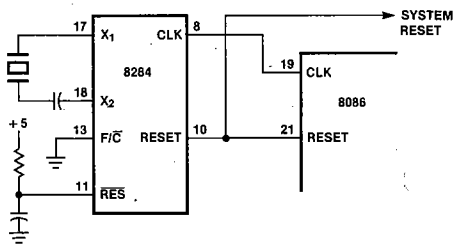


Figure 3C6. 8086 Reset and System Reset

3D. Ready Implementation and Timing

As discussed previously, the ready signal is used in the system to accommodate memory and I/O devices that cannot transfer information at the maximum CPU bus bandwidth. Ready is also used in multiprocessor systems to force the CPU to wait for access to the system bus or Multibus system bus. To insert a wait state in the bus cycle, the READY signal to the CPU must be inactive (low) by the end of T2. To avoid insertion of a wait state, READY must be active (high) within a specified setup time prior to the positive transition during T3. Depending on the size and characteristics of the system, ready implementation may take one of two approaches.

The classical ready implementation is to have the system 'normally not ready.' When the selected device receives the command ($\overline{RD}/\overline{WR}/\overline{INTA}$) and has had sufficient time to complete the command, it activates READY to the CPU, allowing the CPU to terminate the bus cycle. This implementation is characteristic of large multiprocessor, Multibus systems or systems where propagation delays, bus access delays and device characteristics inherently slow down the system. For maximum system performance, devices that can run with no wait states must return 'READY' within the previously described limit. Failure to respond in time will only result in the insertion of one or more wait cycles.

An alternate technique is to have the system 'normally ready.' All devices are assumed to operate at the maximum CPU bus bandwidth. Devices that do not meet the requirement must disable READY by the end of T2 to guarantee the insertion of wait cycles. This implementation is typically applied to small single CPU systems and reduces the logic required to control the ready signal. Since the failure of a device requiring wait states to disable READY by the end of T2 will result in premature termination of the bus cycle, the system timing must be carefully analyzed when using this approach.

The 8086 has two different timing requirements on READY depending on the system implementation. For a 'normally ready' system to insert a wait state, the READY must be disabled within 8 ns (TRYLCL) after the end of T2 (start of T3) (Diag. 3D1). To guarantee proper

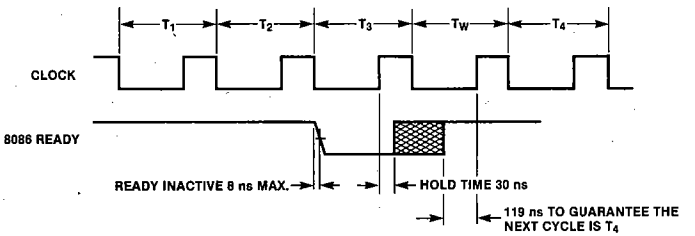


Diagram 3D1. Normally Ready System Inserting a Wait State

operation of the 8086, the READY input must not change from ready to not ready during the clock low time of T3. For a 'normally not ready' system to avoid wait states, READY must be active within 119 ns (TRYHCH) of the positive clock transition during T3 (Diag. 3D2). For both cases, READY must satisfy a hold time of 30 ns (TCHRYX) from the T3 or TW positive clock transition.

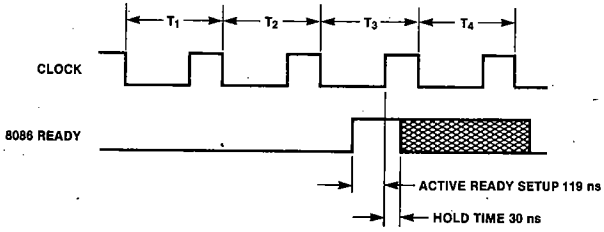


Diagram 3D2. Normally Not Ready System Avoiding a Wait State

To generate a stable READY signal which satisfies the previous setup and hold times, the 8284 provides two separate system ready inputs (RDY1, RDY2) and a single synchronized ready output (READY) for the CPU. The RDY inputs are qualified with separate access enables ($\overline{AEN1}$,$\overline{AEN2}$, low active) to allow selecting one of the two ready signals (Fig. 3D1). The gated signals are logically OR'ed and sampled at the beginning of each CLK cycle to generate READY to the CPU (Diag. 3D3). The sampled READY signal is valid within 8 ns (TRYLCL) after CLK to satisfy the CPU timing requirements on 'not ready' and ready. Since READY cannot change until the next CLK, the hold time requirements are also satisfied. The system ready inputs to the 8284 (RDY1,RDY2) must be valid 35 ns (TRIVCL) before T3 and $\overline{AEN}$ must be valid 60 ns before T3. For a system using only one RDY input, the associated $\overline{AEN}$ is tied to ground while the other $\overline{AEN}$ is connected to 5 volts through ~1K ohms (Fig. 3D2a). If the system generates a low active ready signal, it can be connected to the 8284 $\overline{AEN}$ input if the additional setup time required by the 8284 $\overline{AEN}$ input is satisfied. In this case, the associated RDY input would be tied high (Fig. 3D2b).

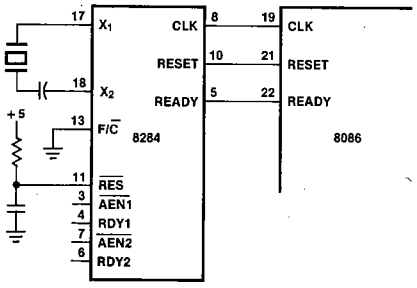
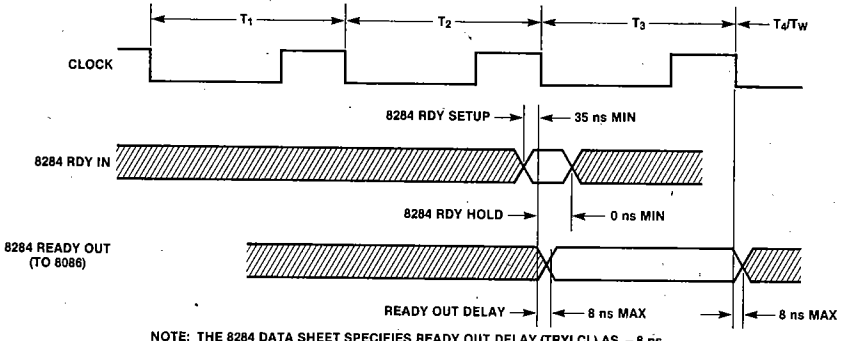


Figure 3D1. Ready Inputs to the 8284 and Output to the 8086



NOTE: THE 8284 DATA SHEET SPECIFIES READY OUT DELAY (TRYLCL) AS −8 ns 'BEFORE' THE END OF T_2 WHICH IMPLIES THE TIMING SHOWN.

Diagram 3D3. 8284 with 8086 Ready Timing

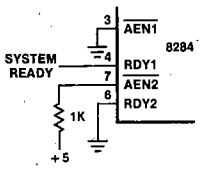


Figure 3D2a. Using RDY1/RDY2 to Generate Ready

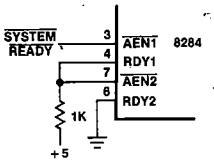


Figure 3D2b. Using $\overline{AEN1}$/$\overline{AEN2}$ to Generate Ready

The majority of memory and peripheral devices which fail to operate at the maximum CPU frequency typically do not require more than one wait state. The circuit given in Figure 3D3 is an example of a simple wait state generator. The system ready line is driven low whenever a device requiring one wait state is selected. The flip flop is cleared by ALE, enabling RDY to the 8284. If no wait states are required, the flip flop does not change. If the system ready is driven low, the flip flop toggles on the low to high clock transition of T2 to force one wait state. The next low to high clock transition toggles the flip flop again to indicate ready and allow completion of the bus cycle. Further changes in the state of the flip flop will not affect the bus cycle. The circuit allows approximately 100 ns for chip select decode and conditioning of the system ready (Diag. 3D4).

If the system is 'normally not ready,' the programmer should not assign executable code to the last six bytes of physical memory. Since the 8086 prefetches instructions, the CPU may attempt to access non-existent memory when executing code at the end of physical memory. If the access to non-existent memory fails to enable READY, the system will be caught in an indefinite wait.

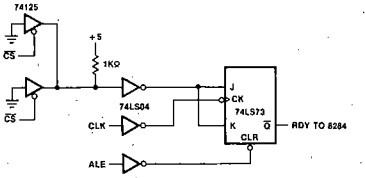


Figure 3D3. Single Wait State Generator

3E. Interrupt Structure

The 8086 interrupt structure is based on a table of interrupt vectors stored in memory locations 0H through 003FFH. Each vector consists of two bytes for the instruction pointer and two bytes for the code segment. These two values combine to form the address of the interrupt service routine. This allows the table to contain up to 256 interrupt vectors which specify the starting address of the service routines anywhere in the one megabyte address space of the 8086. If fewer than 256 different interrupts are defined in the system, the user need only allocate enough memory for the interrupt vector table to provide the vectors for the defined interrupts. During initial system debug, however, it may be desirable to assign all undefined interrupt types to a trap routine to detect erroneous interrupts.

Each vector is associated with an interrupt type number which points to the vector's location in the interrupt vector table. The interrupt type number multiplied by four gives the displacement of the first byte of the associated interrupt vector from the beginning of the table. As an example, interrupt type number 5 points to the sixth entry in the interrupt vector table. The contents of this entry in the table points to the interrupt service routine for type 5 (Fig. 3E1). This structure allows the user to specify the memory address of each service routine by placing the address (instruction pointer and code segment values) in the table location provided for that type interrupt.

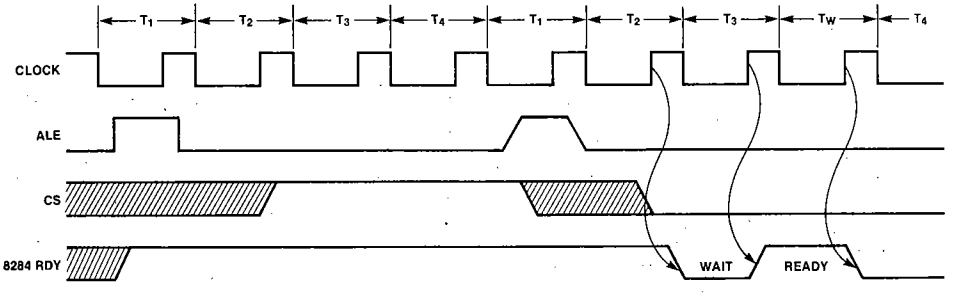


Diagram 3D4.

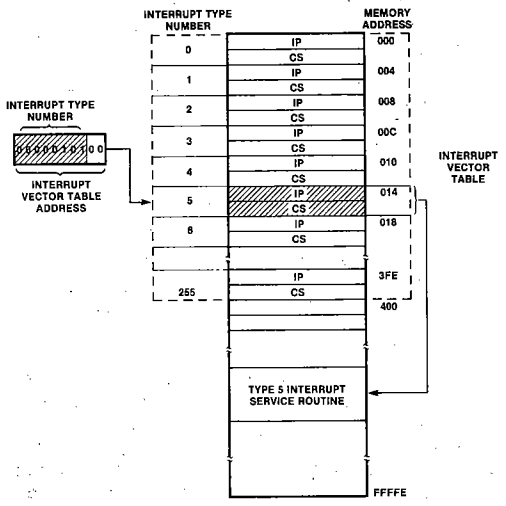


Figure 3E1. Direction to Interrupt Service Routine through the Interrupt Vector Table

All interrupts in the 8086 must be assigned an interrupt type which uniquely identifies each interrupt. There are three classes of interrupt types in the 8086; predefined interrupt types which are issued by specific functions within the 8086 and user defined hardware and software interrupts. Note that any interrupt type including the predefined interrupts can be issued by the user's hardware and/or software.

PREDEFINED INTERRUPTS

The predefined interrupt types in the 8086 are listed below with a brief description of how each is invoked. When invoked, the CPU will transfer control to the memory location specified by the vector associated with the specific type. The user must provide the interrupt service routine and initialize the interrupt vector table with the appropriate service routine address. The user may additionally invoke these interrupts through hardware or software. If the preassigned function is not used in the system, the user may assign some other function to the associated type. However, for compatibility with future Intel hardware and software products for the 8086 family, interrupt types 0-31 should not be assigned as user defined interrupts.

TYPE 0 — DIVIDE ERROR

This interrupt type is invoked whenever a division operation is attempted during which the quotient exceeds the maximum value (ex. division by zero). The interrupt is non-maskable and is entered as part of the execution of the divide instruction. If interrupts are not reenabled by the divide error interrupt service routine, the service routine execution time should be included in the worst case divide instruction execution time (primarily when considering the longest instruction execution time and its effect on latency to servicing hardware interrupts).

TYPE 1 — SINGLE STEP

This interrupt type occurs one instruction after the TF (Trap Flag) is set in the flag register. It is used to allow software single stepping through a sequence of code. Single stepping is initiated by copying the flags onto the stack, setting the TF bit on the stack and popping the flags. The interrupt routine should be the single step routine. The interrupt sequence saves the flags and program counter, then resets the TF flag to allow the single step routine to execute normally. To return to the routine under test, an interrupt return restores the IP, CS and flags with TF set. This allows the execution of the next instruction in the program under test before trapping back to the single step routine. Single Step is not masked by the IF (Interrupt Flag) bit in the flag register.

TYPE 2 — NMI (Non-Maskable Interrupt)

This is the highest priority hardware interrupt and is non-maskable. The input is edge triggered but is synchronized with the CPU clock and must be active for two clock cycles to guarantee recognition. The interrupt signal may be removed prior to entry to the service routine. Since the input must make a low to high transition to generate an interrupt, spurious transitions on the input should be suppressed. If the input is normally high, the NMI low time to guarantee triggering is two CPU clock times. This input is typically reserved for catastrophic failures like power failure or timeout of a system watchdog timer.

TYPE 3 — ONE BYTE INTERRUPT

This is invoked by a special form of the software interrupt instruction which requires a single byte of code space. Its primary use is as a breakpoint interrupt for software debug. With full representation within a single byte, the instruction can map into the smallest instruction for absolute resolution in setting breakpoints. The interrupt is not maskable.

TYPE 4 — INTERRUPT ON OVERFLOW

This interrupt occurs if the overflow flag (OF) is set in the flag register and the INTO instruction is executed. The instruction allows trapping to an overflow error service routine. The interrupt is non-maskable.

Interrupt types 0 and 2 can occur without specific action by the programmer (except for performing a divide for Type 0) while types 1, 3, and 4 require a conscious act by the programmer to generate these interrupt types. All but type 2 are invoked through software activity and are directly associated with a specific instruction.

USER DEFINED SOFTWARE INTERRUPTS

The user can generate an interrupt through the software with a two byte interrupt instruction INT nn. The first byte is the INT opcode while the second byte (nn) contains the type number of the interrupt to be performed. The INT instruction is not maskable by the interrupt enable flag. This instruction can be used to transfer control to routines that are dynamically relocatable and whose location in memory is not known by the calling

program. This technique also saves the flags of the calling program on the stack prior to transferring control. The called procedure must return control with an interrupt return (IRET) instruction to remove the flags from the stack and fully restore the state of the calling program.

All interrupts invoked through software (all interrupts discussed thus far with the exception of NMI) are not maskable with the IF flag and initiate the transfer of control at the end of the instruction in which they occur. They do not initiate interrupt acknowledge bus cycles and will disable subsequent maskable interrupts by resetting the IF and TF flags. The interrupt vector for these interrupt types is either implied or specified in the instruction. Since the NMI is an asynchronous event to the CPU, the point of recognition and initiation of the transfer of control is similar to the maskable hardware interrupts.

USER DEFINED HARDWARE INTERRUPTS

The maskable interrupts initiated by the system hardware are activated through the INTR pin of the 8086 and are masked by the IF bit of the status register (interrupt flag). During the last clock cycle of each instruction, the state of the INTR pin is sampled. The 8086 deviates from this rule when the instruction is a MOV or POP to a segment register. For this case, the interrupts are not sampled until completion of the following instruction. This allows a 32-bit pointer to be loaded to the stack pointer registers SS and SP without the danger of an interrupt occurring between the two loads. Another exception is the WAIT instruction which waits for a low active input on the $\overline{TEST}$ pin. This instruction also continuously samples the interrupt request during its execution and allows servicing interrupts during the wait. When an interrupt is detected, the WAIT instruction is again fetched prior to servicing the interrupt to guarantee the interrupt routine will return to the WAIT instruction.

UNINTERRUPTABLE INSTRUCTION SEQUENCE

```
MOV SS, NEW$STACK$SEGMENT
MOV SP, NEW$STACK$POINTER
```

Also, since prefixes are considered part of the instruction they precede, the 8086 will not sample the interrupt line until completion of the instruction the prefix(es) precede(s). An exception to this (other than HALT or WAIT) is the string primatives preceded by the repeat (REP) prefix. The repeated string operations will sample the interrupt line at the completion of each repetition. This includes repeat string operations which include the lock prefix. If multiple prefixes precede a repeated string operation, and the instruction is interrupted, only the prefix immediately preceding the string primative is restored. To allow correct resumption of the operation, the following programming technique may be used:

```
LOCKED$BLOCK$MOVE: LOCK REP MOVS DEST, CS:SOURCE
                   AND CX,  CX
                   JNZ LOCKED$BLOCK$MOVE
```

The code bytes generated by the 8086 assembler for the MOVS instruction are (in descending order): LOCK prefix, REP prefix, Segment Override prefix and MOVS. Upon return from the interrupt, the segment override prefix is restored to guarantee one additional transfer is performed between the correct memory locations. The instructions following the move operation test the repetition count value to determine if the move was completed and return if not.

If the INTR pin is high when sampled and the IF bit is set to enable interrupts, the 8086 executes an interrupt acknowledge sequence. To guarantee the interrupt will be acknowledged, the INTR input must be held active until the interrupt acknowledge is issued by the CPU. If the BIU is running a bus cycle when the interrupt condition is detected (as would occur if the BIU is fetching an instruction when the current instruction completes), the

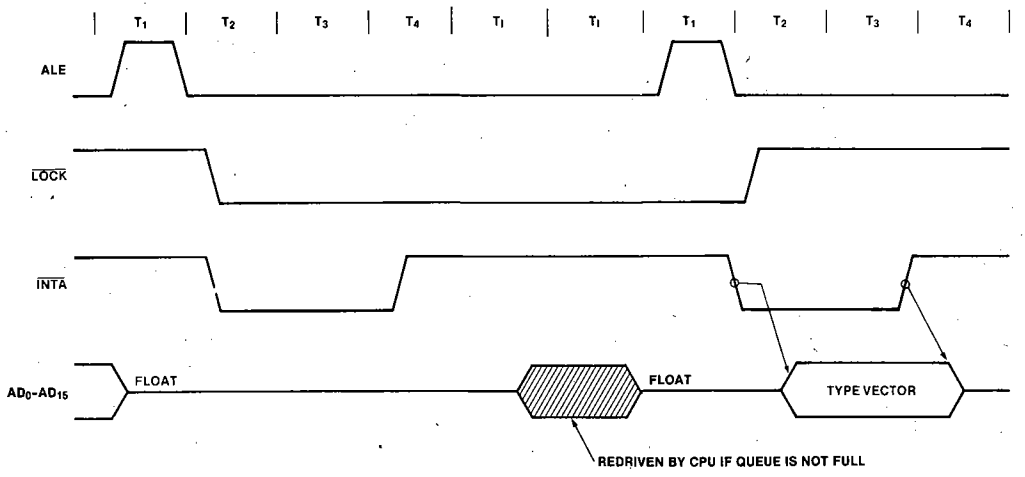


Figure 3E2. Interrupt Acknowledge Sequence

interrupt must be valid at the 8086 2 clock cycles prior to T4 of the bus cycle if the next cycle is to be an interrupt acknowledge cycle. If the 2 clock setup is not satisfied, another pending bus cycle will be executed before the interrupt acknowledge is issued. If a hold request is also pending (this might occur if an interrupt and hold request are made during execution of a locked instruction), the interrupt is serviced after the hold request is serviced.

The interrupt acknowledge sequence is only generated in response to an interrupt on the 8086 INTR input. The associated bus activity is shown in Figure 3E2. The cycle consists of two $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycles separated by two idle clock cycles. During the bus cycles the $\overline{INTA}$ command is issued rather than read. No address is provided by the 8086 during either bus cycle ($\overline{BHE}$ and status are valid), however, ALE is still generated and will load the address latches with indeterminate information. This condition requires that devices in the system do not drive their outputs without being qualified by the Read Command. As will be shown later, the ALE is useful in maximum mode systems with multiple 8259A priority interrupt controllers. During the $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycles, DT/$\overline{R}$ and DEN are conditioned to allow the 8086 to receive a one byte interrupt type number from the interrupt system. The first $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycle signals an interrupt acknowledge cycle is in progress and allows the system to prepare to present the interrupt type number on the next $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycle. The CPU does not capture information on the bus during the first cycle. The type number must be transferred to the 8086 on the lower half of the 16-bit data bus during the second cycle. This implies that devices which present interrupt type numbers to the 8086 must be located on the lower half of the 16-bit data bus. The timing of the $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycles (with exception of address timing) is similar to read cycle timing. The 8086 interrupt acknowledge sequence deviates from the form used on 8080 and 8085 in that no instruction is issued as part of the sequence. The 8080 and 8085 required either a restart or call instruction be issued to affect the transfer of control.

In the minimum mode system, the M/$\overline{IO}$ signal will be low indicating I/O during the $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycles. The 8086 internal $\overline{LOCK}$ signal will be active from T2 of the first bus cycle until T2 of the second to prevent the BIU from honoring a hold request between the two $\overline{INTA}$ cycles.

In the maximum mode, the status lines $\overline{S0}$-$\overline{S2}$ will request the 8288 to activate the $\overline{INTA}$ output for each cycle. The $\overline{LOCK}$ output of the 8086 will be active from T2 of the first cycle until T2 of the second to prevent the 8086 from honoring a hold request on either $\overline{RQ}$/$\overline{GT}$ input and to prevent bus arbitration logic from relinquishing the bus between $\overline{INTA}$'s in multi-master systems. The consequences of READY are identical to those for READ and WRITE cycles.

Once the 8086 has the interrupt type number (from the bus for hardware interrupts, from the instruction stream for software interrupts or from the predefined condition), the type number is multiplied by four to form the displacement to the corresponding interrupt vector in the interrupt vector table. The four bytes of the interrupt vector are: least significant byte of the instruction pointer, most significant byte of the instruction pointer, least significant byte of the code segment register, most significant byte of the code segment register. During the transfer of control, the CPU pushes the flags and current code segment register and instruction pointer onto the stack. The new code segment and instruction pointer values are loaded and the single step and interrupt flags are reset. Resetting the interrupt flag disables response to further hardware interrupts in the service routine unless the flags are specifically re-enabled by the service routine. The CS and IP values are read from the interrupt vector table with data read cycles. No segment registers are used when referencing the vector table during the interrupt context switch. The vector displacement is added to zero to form the 20-bit address and S4, S3 = 10 indicating no segment register selection.

The actual bus activity associated with the hardware interrupt acknowledge sequence is as follows: Two interrupt acknowledge bus cycles, read new IP from the interrupt vector table, read new CS from the interrupt vector table, Push flags, Push old CS, Opcode fetch of the first instruction of the interrupt service routine, and Push old IP. After saving the old IP, the BIU will resume normal operation of prefetching instructions into the queue and servicing EU requests for operands. S5 (interrupt enable flag status) will go inactive in the second clock cycle following reading the new CS.

The number of clock cycles from the end of the instruction during which the interrupt occurred to the start of interrupt routine execution is 61 clock cycles. For software generated interrupts, the sequence of bus cycles is the same except no interrupt acknowledge bus cycles are executed. This reduces the delay to service routine execution to 51 clocks for INT nn and single step, 52 clocks for INT3 and 53 clocks for INTO. The same interrupt setup requirements with respect to the BIU that were stated for the hardware interrupts also apply to the software interrupts. If wait states are inserted by either the memories or the device supplying the interrupt type number, the given clock times will increase accordingly.

When considering the precedence of interrupts for multiple simultaneous interrupts, the following guidelines apply: 1. INTR is the only maskable interrupt and if detected simultaneously with other interrupts, resetting of IF by the other interrupts will mask INTR. This causes INTR to be the lowest priority interrupt serviced after all other interrupts unless the other interrupt service routines reenable interrupts. 2. Of the nonmaskable interrupts (NMI, Single Step and software generated), in general, Single Step has highest priority (will be serviced first) followed by NMI, followed by the software interrupts. This implies that a simultaneous NMI and Single Step trap will cause the NMI service routine to follow single step; a simultaneous software trap and Single Step trap will cause the software interrupt service routine to follow single step and a simultaneous NMI and software trap will cause the NMI service routine to be executed followed by the software interrupt service routine. An exception to this priority structure occurs if all three interrupts are pending. For this case, transfer of control to the software interrupt ser-

vice routine followed by the NMI trap will cause both the NMI and software interrupt service routines to be executed without single stepping. Single stepping resumes upon execution of the instruction following the instruction causing the software interrupt (the next instruction in the routine being single stepped).

If the user does not wish to single step before INTR service routines, the single step routine need only disable interrupts during execution of the program being single stepped and reenable interrupts on entry to the single step routine. Disabling the interrupts during the program under test prevents entry into the interrupt service routine while single step (TF = 1) is active. To prevent single stepping before NMI service routines, the single step routine must check the return address on the stack for the NMI service routine address and return control to that routine without single step enabled. As examples, consider Figures 3E3a and 3E3b. In 3E3a Single Step and NMI occur simultaneously while in 3E3b, NMI, INTR and a divide error all occur during a divide instruction being single stepped.

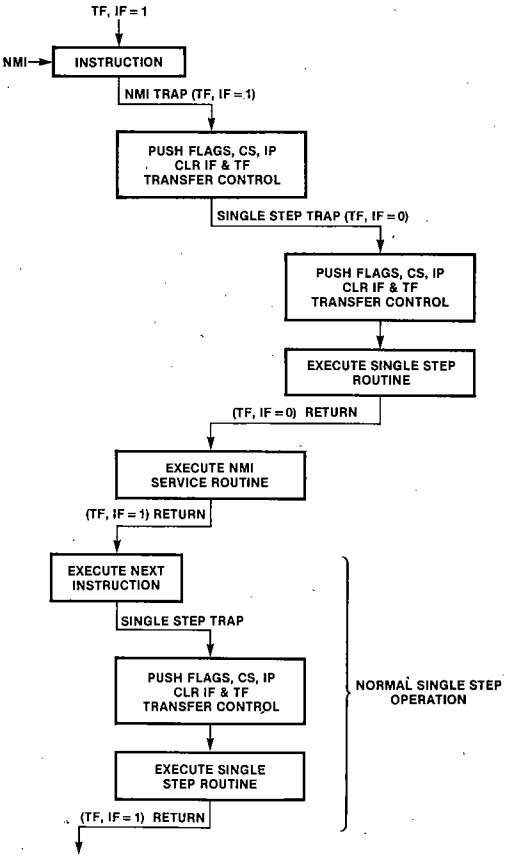


Figure 3E3a. NMI During Single Stepping and Normal Single Step Operation

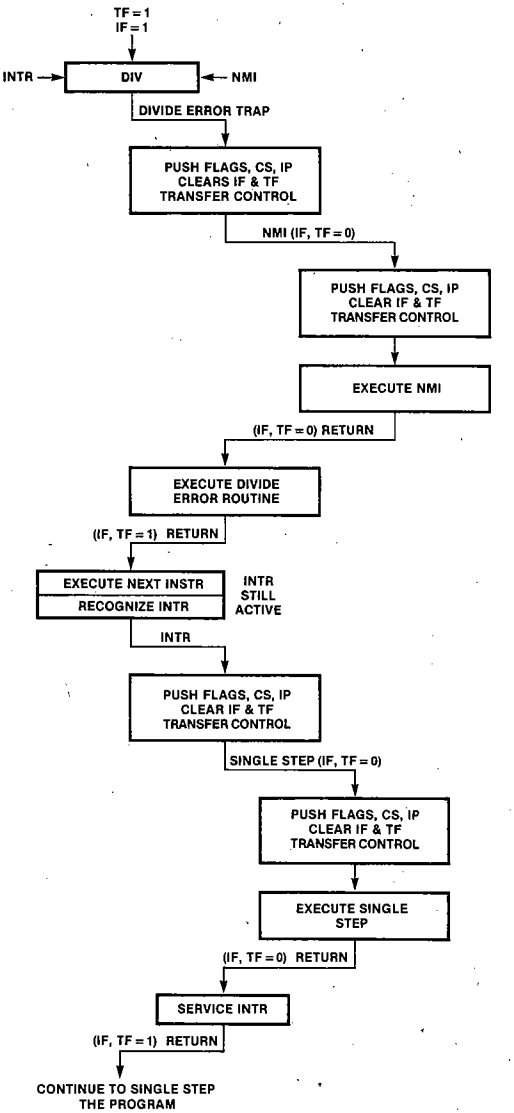


Figure 3E3b. NMI, INTR, Single Step and Divide Error Simultaneous Interrupts

SYSTEM CONFIGURATIONS

To accommodate the $\overline{\text{INTA}}$ protocol of the maskable hardware interrupts, the 8259A is provided as part of the 8086 family. This component is programmable to operate in both 8080/8085 systems and 8086 systems. The devices are cascadable in master/slave arrangements to allow up to 64 interrupts in the system. Figures 3E4 and 3E5 are examples of 8259A's in minimum and maximum mode 8086 systems. The minimum mode configuration (a) shows an 8259A connected to the CPU's

multiplexed bus. Configuration (b) illustrates an 8259A connected to a demultiplexed bus system. These interconnects are also applicable to maximum mode systems. The configuration given for a maximum mode system shows a master 8259A on the CPU's multiplexed bus with additional slave 8259A's out on the buffered system bus. This configuration demonstrates several unique features of the maximum mode system interface. If the master 8259A receives interrupts from a mix of slave 8259A's and regular interrupting devices, the slaves must provide the type number for devices connected to them while the master provides the type number for devices directly attached to its interrupt inputs. The master 8259A is programmable to determine if an interrupt is from a direct input or a slave 8259A and will use this information to enable or disable the data bus transceivers (via the 'nand' function of DEN and $\overline{EN}$). If the master must provide the type number, it will disable the data bus transceivers. If the slave provides the type number, the master will enable the data bus transceivers. The $\overline{EN}$ output is normally high to allow the 8086/8288 to control the bus transceivers. To select the proper slave when servicing a slave interrupt, the master must provide a cascade address to the slave. If the 8288 is not strapped in the I/O bus mode (the 8288 IOB input connected to ground), the MCE/$\overline{PDEN}$ output becomes a MCE or Master Cascade Enable output. This signal is only active during $\overline{INTA}$ cycles as shown in Figure 3E6 and enables the master 8259A's cascade address onto the 8086's local bus during ALE. This allows the address latches to capture the cascade address with ALE and allows use of the system address bus for selecting the proper slave 8259A. The MCE is gated with $\overline{LOCK}$ to minimize local bus contention between the 8086 three-stating its bus outputs and the cascade address being enabled onto the bus. The first $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycle allows the master to resolve internal priorities and output a cascade address to be transmitted to the slaves on the subsequent $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycle. For additional information on the 8259A, reference application note AP-59.

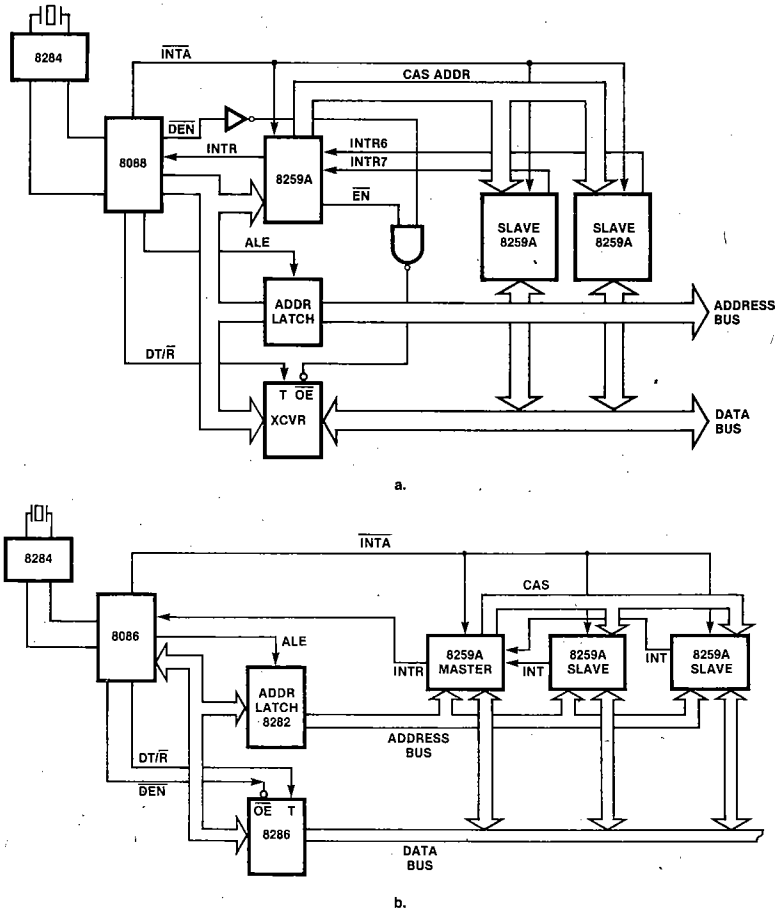


Figure 3E4. Min Mode 8086 with Master 8259A on the Local Bus and Slave 8259As on the System Bus

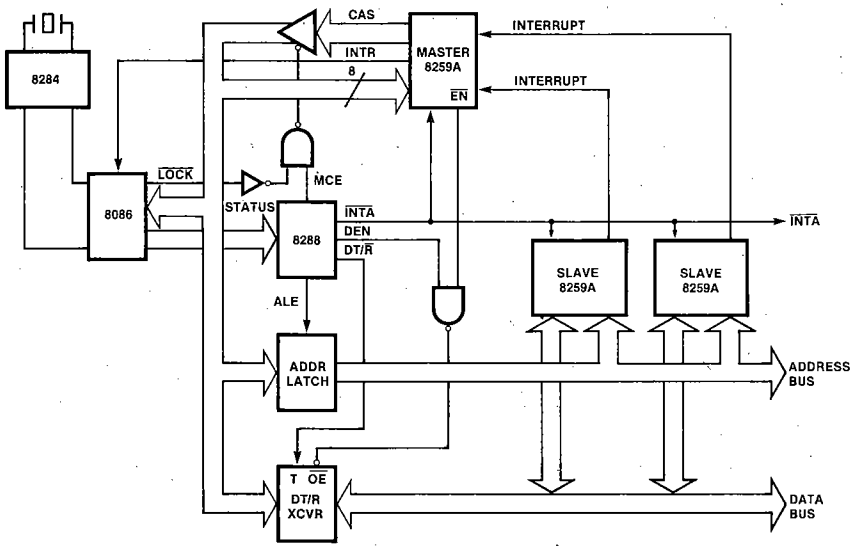


Figure 3E5. Max Mode 8086 with Master 8259A on the Local Bus and Slave 8259As on the System Bus

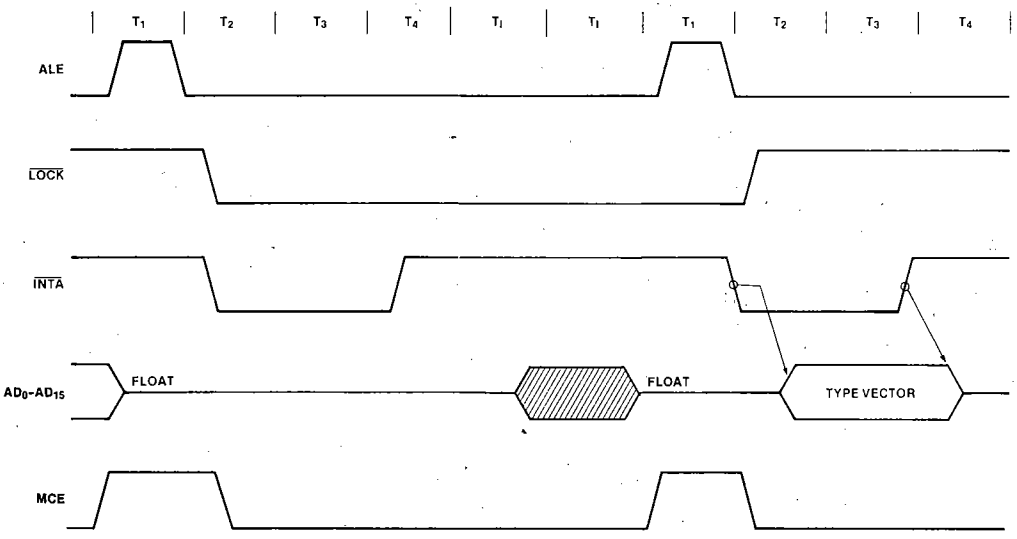


Figure 3E6. MCE Timing to Gate 8259A CAS Address onto the 8086 Local Bus

3F. Interpreting the 8086 Bus Timing Diagrams

At first glance, the 8086 bus timing diagrams (Diag. 3F1 min mode and Diag. 3F2 max mode) appear rather complex. However, with a few words of explanation on how to interpret them, they become a powerful tool in determining system requirements. The timing diagrams for both the minimum and maximum modes may be divided into six sections: (1) address and ALE timing; (2) read cycle timing; (3) write cycle timing; (4) interrupt acknowledge timing; (5) ready timing; and (6) HOLD/HLDA or $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ timing. Since the A.C. characteristics of the signals are specified relative to the CPU clock, the relationship between the majority of signals can be deduced by simply determining the clock cycles between the clock edges the signals are relative to and adding or subtracting the appropriate minimum or maximum parameter values. One aspect of system timing not compensated for in this approach is the worst case relationship between minimum and maximum parameter values (also known as tracking relationships). As an example, consider a signal which has specified minimum and maximum turn on and turn off delays. Depending on device characteristics, it may not be possible for the component to simultaneously demonstrate a maximum turn-on and minimum turn-off delay even though worst case analysis might imply the possibility. This argument is characteristic of MOS devices and is therefore applicable to the 8086 A.C. characteristics. The message is: worst case analysis mixing minimum and maximum delay parameters will typically exceed the worst case obtainable and therefore should not be subjected to further subjective degradation to obtain worst-worst case values. This section will provide guidelines for specific areas of 8086 timing sensitive to tracking relationships.

A. MINIMUM MODE BUS TIMING

1. ADDRESS and ALE

The address/ALE timing relationship is important to determine the ability to capture a valid address from the multiplexed bus. Since the 8282 and 8283 latches capture the address on the trailing edge of ALE, the critical timing involves the state of the address lines when ALE terminates. If the address valid delay is assumed to be maximum TCLAV and ALE terminates at its earliest point, TCHLLmin (assuming zero minimum delay), the address would be valid only TCLCHmin-TCLAVmax = 8 ns prior to ALE termination. This result is unrealistic in the assumption of maximum TCLAV and minimum TCHLL. To provide an accurate measure of the true worst case, a separate parameter specifies the minimum time for address valid prior to the end of ALE (TAVAL). TAVAL = TCLCH-60 ns overrides the clock related timings and guarantees 58 ns of address setup to ALE termination for a 5 MHz 8086. The address is guaranteed to remain valid beyond the end of ALE by the TLLAX parameter. This specification overrides the relationship between TCHLL and TCLAX which might seem to imply the address may not be valid by the end of the latest possible ALE. TLLAX holds for the entire address bus. The TCLAXmin spec on the address indicates the earliest the bus will go invalid if not restrained by a slow ALE. TLLAX and TCLAX apply to the entire multiplexed bus for both read and write cycles. AD15-0 is three-stated for read cycles and immediately switched to write data during write cycles. AD19-16 immediately switch from address to status for both read and write cycles. The minimum ALE pulse width is guaranteed by TLHLLmin which takes precedence over the value obtained by relating TCLLHmax and TCHLLmin.

To determine the worst case delay to valid address on a demultiplexed address bus, two paths must be considered: (1) delay of valid address and (2) delay to ALE. Since the 8282 and 8283 are flow through latches, a valid address is not transmitted to the address bus until ALE is active. A comparison of address valid delay TCLAVmax with ALE active delay TCLLHmax indicates TCLAVmax is the worst case. Subtracting the latch propagation delay gives the worst case address bus valid delay from the start of the bus cycle.

2. Read Cycle Timing

Read timing consists of conditioning the bus, activating the read command and establishing the data transceiver enable and direction controls. DT/$\overline{R}$ is established early in the bus cycle and requires no further consideration. During read, the $\overline{DEN}$ signal must allow the transceivers to propagate data to the CPU with the appropriate data setup time and continue to do so until the required data hold time. The $\overline{DEN}$ turn on delay allows TCLCL + TCHCLmin – TCVCTVmax – TDVCL = 127 ns transceiver enable time prior to valid data required by the CPU. Since the CPU data hold time TCLDXmin and minimum $\overline{DEN}$ turnoff delay TCVCTXmin are both 10 ns relative to the same clock edge, the hold time is guaranteed. Additionally, $\overline{DEN}$ must disable the transceivers prior to the CPU redriving the bus with the address for the next bus cycle. The maximum $\overline{DEN}$ turn off delay (TCVCTXmax) compared with the minimum delay for addresses out of the 8086 (TCLCL + TCLAVmin) indicates the transceivers are disabled at least 105 ns before the CPU drives the address onto the multiplexed bus.

If memory or I/O devices are connected directly to the multiplexed address and data bus, the TAZRL parameter guarantees the CPU will float the bus before activating read and allowing the selected device to drive the bus. At the end of the bus cycle, the TRHAV parameter specifies the bus float delay the device being deselected must satisfy to avoid contention with the CPU driving the address for the next bus cycle. The next bus cycle may start as soon as the cycle following T4 or any number of clock cycles later.

The minimum delay from read active to valid data at the CPU is 2TCLCL – TCLRLmax – TDVCL = 205 ns. The minimum pulse width is 2TCLCL – 75 ns = 325 ns. This specification (TRLRH) overrides the result which could be derived from clock relative delays (2TCLCL – TCLRLmax + TCLRHmin).

3. Write Cycle Timing

The write cycle involves providing write data to the system, generating the write command and controlling data bus transceivers. The transceiver direction control signal DT/$\overline{R}$ is conditioned to transmit at the end of each read cycle and does not change during a write cycle.

This allows the transceiver enable signal $\overline{DEN}$ to be active early in the cycle (while addresses are valid) without corrupting the address on the multiplexed bus. The write data and write command are both enabled from the leading edge of T2. Comparing minimum $\overline{WR}$ active delay TCVCTVmin with the maximum write data delay TCLDV indicates that write data may be not valid until 100 ns after write is active. The devices in the system should capture data on the trailing edge of the write command rather than the leading edge to guarantee valid data. The data from the 8086 is valid a minimum of 2TCLCL – TCLDVmax + TCVCTXmin = 300 ns before the trailing edge of write. The minimum write pulse width is TWLWH = 2TCLCL – 60 ns = 340 ns. The CPU maintains valid write data TWHDX ns after write. The TWHDZ specification overrides the result derived by relating TCLCHmin and TCHDZmin which implies write data may only be valid 18 ns after $\overline{WR}$. The 8086 floats the bus after write only if being forced off the bus by a HOLD or $\overline{RQ}$ input. Otherwise, the CPU simply switches the output drivers from data to address at the beginning of the next bus cycle. As with the read cycle, the next bus cycle may start in the clock cycle following T4 or any clock cycle later.

$\overline{DEN}$ is disabled a minimum of TCLCHmin + TCVCTXmin – TCVCTXmax = 18 ns after write to guarantee data hold time to the selected device. Since we are again evaluating a minimum TCVCTX with a maximum TCVCTX, the real minimum delay from the end of write to transceiver disable is approximately 60 ns.

4. Interrupt Acknowledge Timing

The interrupt acknowledge sequence consists of two interrupt acknowledge bus cycles as previously described. The detailed timing of each cycle is identical to the read cycle timing with two exceptions: command timing and address/data bus timing.

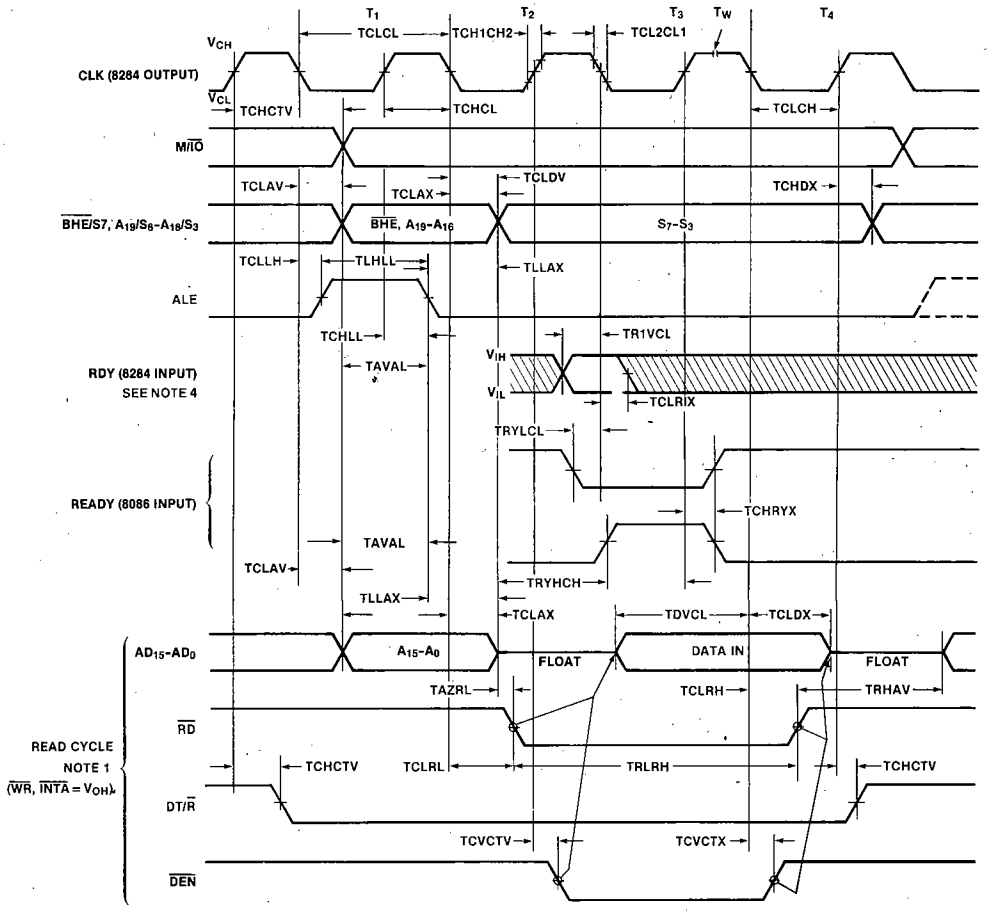
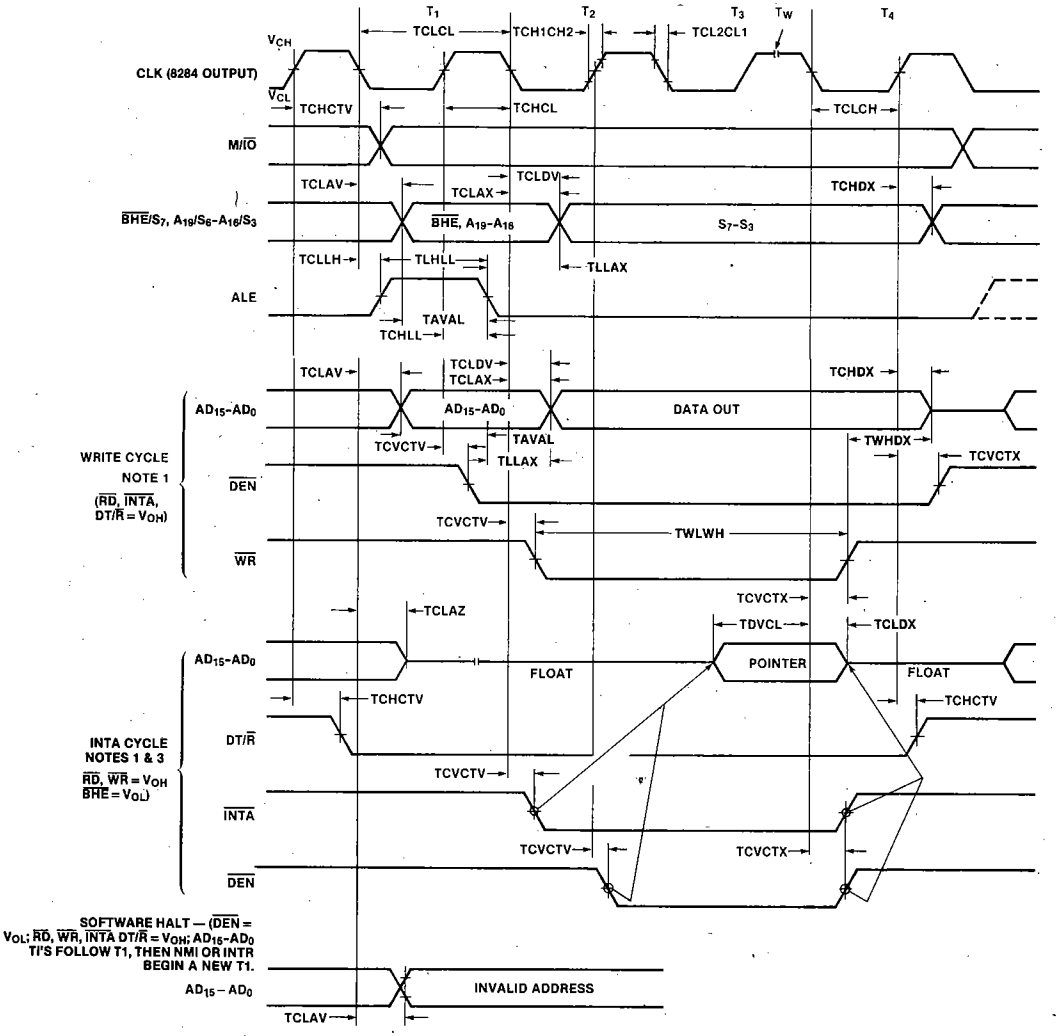


Figure 3F1. 8086 Bus Timing — Minimum Mode System



NOTES:
1. ALL SIGNALS SWITCH BETWEEN V_{OH} AND V_{OI} UNLESS OTHERWISE SPECIFIED.
2. RDY IS SAMPLED NEAR THE END OF T_2, T_3, T_W TO DETERMINE IF T_W MACHINES STATES ARE TO BE INSERTED.
3. BOTH INTA CYCLES RUN BACK-TO-BACK. THE 8088 LOCAL ADDR/DATA BUS IS FLOATING DURING THE SECOND INTA CYCLE. CONTROL SIGNALS SHOWN FOR SECOND INTA CYCLE.
4. SIGNALS AT 8284 ARE SHOWN FOR REFERENCE ONLY.
5. ALL TIMING MEASUREMENTS ARE MADE AT 1.5V UNLESS OTHERWISE NOTED.

Figure 3F1. 8086 Bus Timing — Minimum Mode System (Con't)

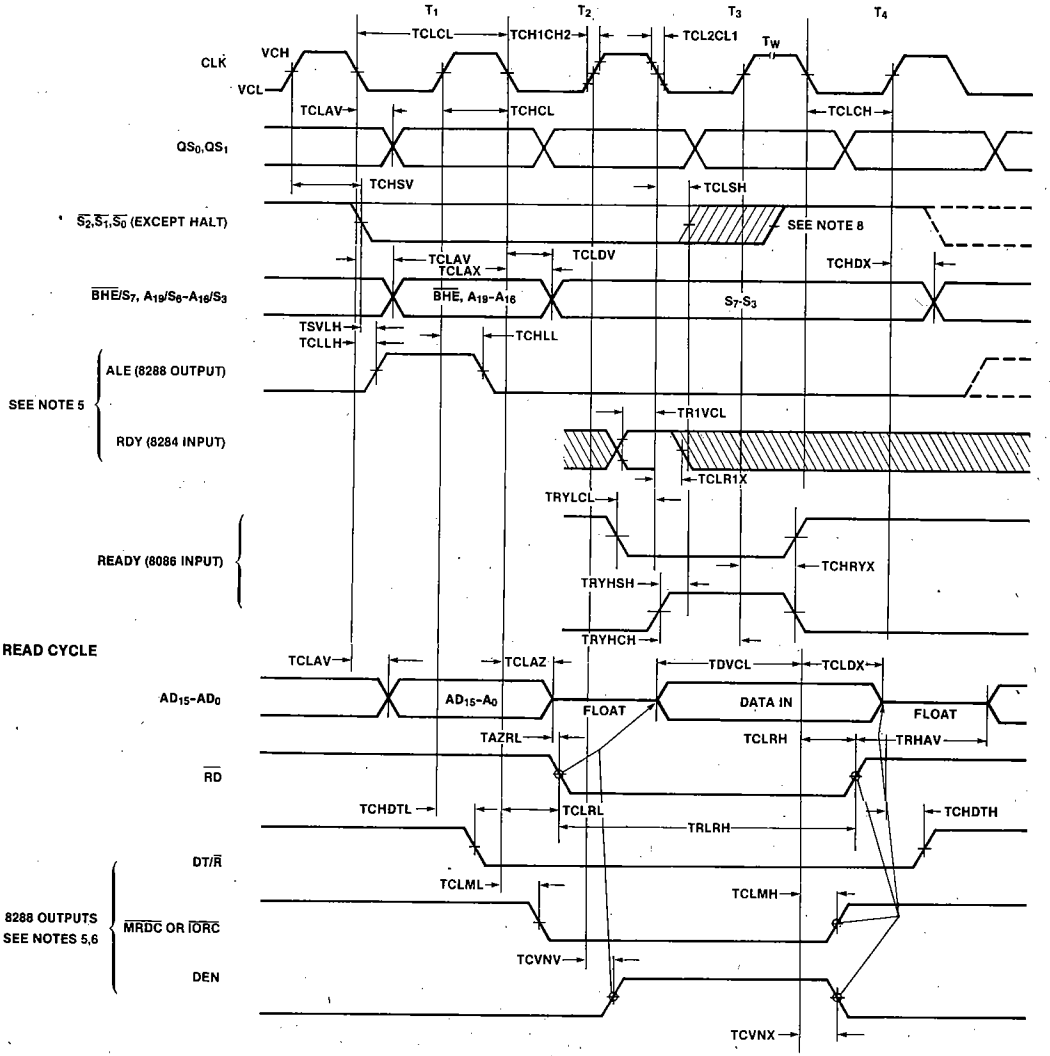
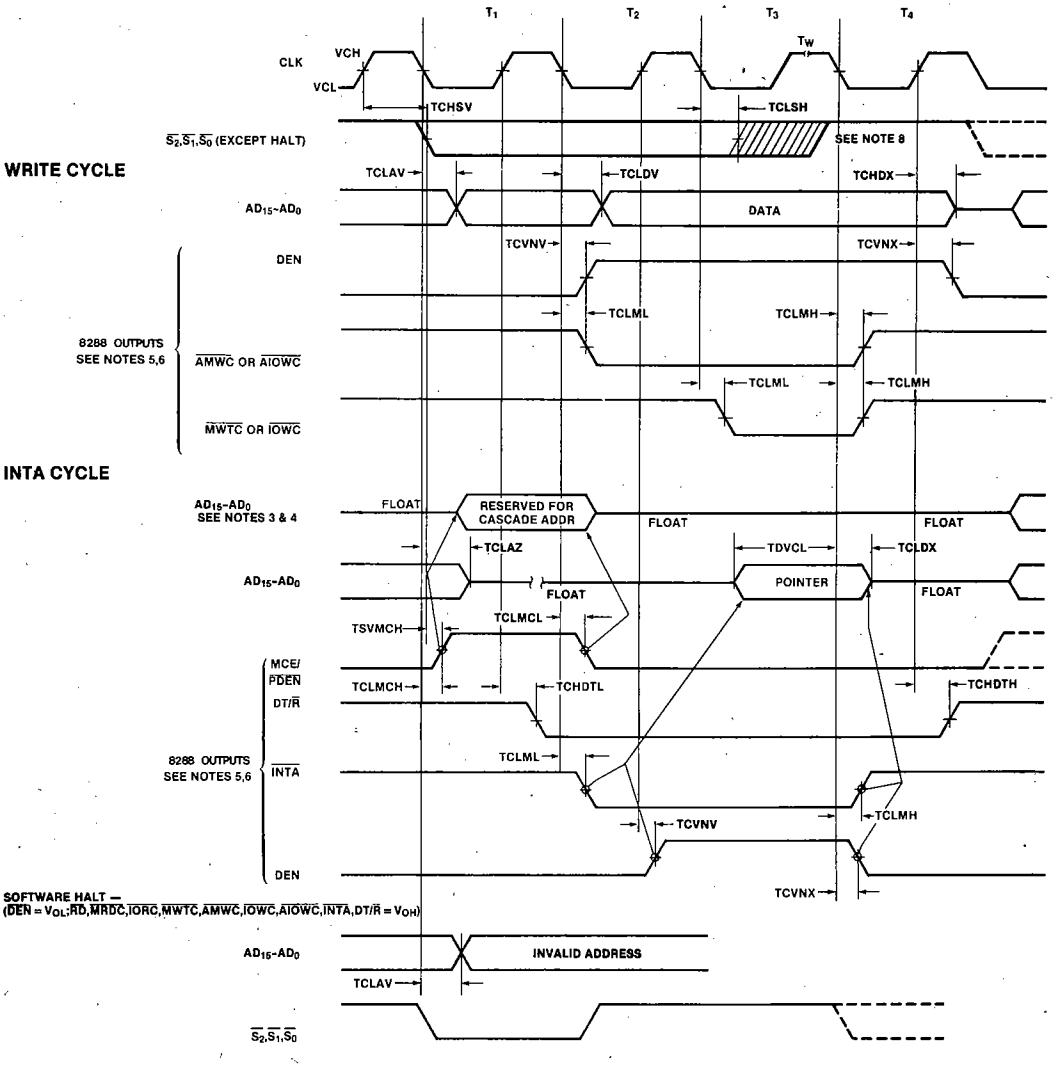


Figure 3F2a. 8086 Bus Timing — Maximum Mode System (Using 8288)



NOTES:
1. ALL SIGNALS SWITCH BETWEEN V_{OH} AND V_{OL} UNLESS OTHERWISE SPECIFIED.
2. RDY IS SAMPLED NEAR THE END OF T_2, T_3, T_W TO DETERMINE IF T_W MACHINES STATES ARE TO BE INSERTED.
3. CASCADE ADDRESS IS VALID BETWEEN FIRST AND SECOND INTA CYCLES.
4. BOTH INTA CYCLES RUN BACK-TO-BACK. THE 8088 LOCAL ADDR/DATA BUS IS FLOATING DURING THE SECOND INTA CYCLE. CONTROL FOR POINTER ADDRESS IS SHOWN FOR SECOND INTA CYCLE.
5. SIGNALS AT 8284 OR 8288 ARE SHOWN FOR REFERENCE ONLY.
6. THE ISSUANCE OF THE 8288 COMMAND AND CONTROL SIGNALS ($\overline{MRDC}$, $\overline{MWTC}$, $\overline{AMWC}$, $\overline{IORC}$, $\overline{IOWC}$, $\overline{AIOWC}$, $\overline{INTA}$ AND DEN) LAGS THE ACTIVE HIGH 8288 CEN.
7. ALL TIMING MEASUREMENTS ARE MADE AT 1.5V UNLESS OTHERWISE NOTED.
8. STATUS INACTIVE IN STATE JUST PRIOR TO T_4.

Figure 3F2b. 8086 Bus Timing — Maximum Mode System (Using 8288) (Con't)

The multiplexed address/data bus floats from the beginning (T1) of the $\overline{INTA}$ cycle (within TCLAZ ns). The upper four multiplexed address/status lines do not three-state. The address value on A19-A16 is indeterminate but the status information will be valid (S3 = 0, S4 = 0, S5 = IF, S6 = 0, S7 = $\overline{BHE}$ = 0). The multiplexed address/data lines will remain in three-state until the cycle after T4 of the $\overline{INTA}$ cycle. This sequence occurs for each of the $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycles. The interrupt type number read by the 8086 on the second $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycle must satisfy the same setup and hold times required for data during a read cycle.

The $\overline{DEN}$ and DT/$\overline{R}$ signals are enabled for each $\overline{INTA}$ cycle and do not remain active between the two cycles. Their timing for each cycle is identical to the read cycle.

The $\overline{INTA}$ command has the same timing as the write command. It is active within 110 ns of the start of T2 providing 260 ns of access time from command to data valid at the 8086. The command is active a minimum of TCVCTXmin = 10 ns into T4 to satisfy the data hold time of the 8086. This provides minimum $\overline{INTA}$ pulse width of 300 ns, however taking signal delay tracking into consideration gives a minimum pulse width of 340 ns. Since the maximum inactive delay of $\overline{INTA}$ is TCVCTXmax = 110 ns and the CPU will not drive the bus until 15 ns (TCLAVmin) into the next clock cycle, 105 ns are available for interrupt devices on the local bus to float their outputs. If the data bus is buffered, $\overline{DEN}$ provides the same amount of time for local bus transceivers to three-state their outputs.

5. Ready Timing

The detailed timing requirements of the 8086 ready signal and the system ready signal into the 8284 are described in Section 3D. The system ready signal is typically generated from either the address decode of the selected device or the address decode and the command ($\overline{RD}$, $\overline{WR}$, $\overline{INTA}$). For a system which is normally not ready, the time to generate ready from a valid address and not insert a wait state, is 2TCLCL – TCLAVmax – TR1VCLmax = 255 ns. This time is available for buffer delays and address decoding to determine if the selected device does not require a wait state and drive the RDY line high. If wait cycles are required, the user hardware must provide the appropriate ready delay. Since the address will not change until the next ALE, the RDY will remain valid throughout the cycle. If the system is normally ready, selected devices requiring wait states also have 255 ns to disable the RDY line. The user circuitry must delay re-enabling RDY by the appropriate number of wait states.

If the $\overline{RD}$ command is used to enable the RDY signal, TCLCL – TCLRLmax – TRIVCLmax = 15 ns are available for external logic. If the $\overline{WR}$ command is used, TCLCL – TCVCTVmax – TRIVCLmax = 55 ns are available. Comparison of RDY control by address or command indicates that address decoding provides the best timing. If the system is normally not ready, address decode alone could be used to provide RDY for devices not requiring wait states while devices requiring wait states may use a combination of address decode and command to activate a wait state generator. If the system is normally ready, devices not requiring wait states do nothing to RDY while devices needing wait states should disable RDY via the address decode and use a combination of address decode and command to activate a delay to re-enable RDY.

If the system requires no wait states for memory and a fixed number of wait states for $\overline{RD}$ and $\overline{WR}$ to all I/O devices, the M/$\overline{IO}$ signal can be used as an early indication of the need for wait cycles. This allows a common circuit to control ready timing for the entire system without feedback of address decodes.

6. Other Considerations

Detailed HOLD/HLDA timing is covered in the next section and is not examined here. One last signal consideration needs to be mentioned for the minimum mode system. The $\overline{TEST}$ input is sampled by the 8086 only during execution of the WAIT instruction. The $\overline{TEST}$ signal should be active for a minimum of 6 clock cycles during the WAIT instruction to guarantee detection.

B. MAXIMUM MODE BUS TIMING

The maximum mode 8086 bus operations are logically equivalent to the minimum mode operation. Detailed timing analysis now involves signals generated by the CPU and the 8288 bus controller. The 8288 also provides additional control and command signals which expand the flexibility of the system.

1. ADDRESS and ALE

In the maximum mode, the address information continues to come from the CPU while the ALE strobe is generated by the 8288. To determine the worst case relationships between ALE and the address, we first must determine 8288 ALE activation relative to the $\overline{S0}$-$\overline{S2}$ status from the CPU. The maximum mode timing diagram specifies two possible delay paths to generate ALE. The first is TCHSV + TSVLH measured from the rising edge of the clock cycle preceding T1. The second path is TCLLH measured from the start of T1. Since the 8288 initiates a bus cycle from the status lines leaving the passive state ($\overline{S0}$-$\overline{S2}$ = 1), if the 8086 is late in issuing the status (TCHSVmax) while the clock high time is a minimum (TCHCLmin), the status will not have changed by the start of T1 and ALE is issued TSVLH ns after the status changes. If the status changes prior to the beginning of T1, the 8288 will not issue the ALE until TCLLH ns after the start of T1. The resulting worst case delay to enable ALE (relative to the start of T1) is TCHSVmax + TSVLHmax – TCHCLmin = 58 ns. Note, when calculating signal relationships, be sure to use the proper maximum mode values rather than equivalent minimum mode values.

The trailing edge of ALE is triggered in the 8288 by the positive clock edge in T1 regardless of the delay to enable ALE. The resulting minimum ALE pulse width is TCLCHmax – 58 ns = 75 ns assuming TCHLL = 0. TCLCHmax must be used since TCHCLmin was assumed to derive the 58 ns ALE enable delay. The address is guaranteed to be valid TCLCHmin + TCHLLmin – TCLAVmax = 8 ns prior to the trailing edge

of ALE to capture the address in the 8282 or 8283 latches. Again we have assumed a very conservative TCHLL = 0. Note, since the address and ALE are driven by separate devices, no tracking of A.C. characteristics can be assumed.

The address hold time to the latches is guaranteed by the address remaining valid until the end of T1 while ALE is disabled a maximum of 15 ns from the positive clock transition in T1 (TCHCLmin – TCHLLmax = 52 ns address hold time). The multiplexed bus transitions from address to status and write data or three-state (for read) are identical to the minimum mode timing. Also, since the address valid delay (TCLAV) remains the critical path in establishing a valid address, the address access times to valid data and ready are the same as the minimum mode system.

2. Read Cycle Timing

The maximum mode system offers read signals generated by both the 8086 and the 8288. The 8086 $\overline{RD}$ output signal timing is identical to the minimum mode system. Since the A.C. characteristics of the read commands generated by the 8288 are significantly better than the 8086 output, access to devices on the demultiplexed buffered system bus should use the 8288 commands. The 8086 $\overline{RD}$ signal is available for devices which reside directly on the multiplexed bus. The following evaluations for read, write and interrupt acknowledge only consider the 8288 command timing.

The 8288 provides separate memory and I/O read signals which conform to the same A.C. characteristics. The commands are issued TCLML ns after the start of T2 and terminate TCLMH ns after the start of T4. The minimum command length is 2TCLCL – TCLMLmax + TCLMLmin = 375 ns. The access time to valid data at the CPU is 2TCLCL – TCLMLmax – TDVCLmax = 335 ns. Since the 8288 was designed for systems with buffered data busses, the commands are enabled before the CPU has three-stated the multiplexed bus and should not be used with devices which reside directly on the multiplexed bus (to do so could result in bus contention during 8086 bus float and device turn-on).

The direction control for data bus transceivers is established in T1 while the transceivers are not enabled by DEN until the positive clock transition of T2. This provides TCLCH + TCVNVmin = 123 ns for 8086 bus float delay and TCHCLmin + TCLCL – TCVNVmax – TDVCLmax = 187 ns of transceiver active to data valid at the CPU. Since both DEN and command are valid a minimum of 10 ns into T4, the CPU data hold time TCLDX is guaranteed. A maximum DEN disable of 45 ns (TCVNX max) guarantees the transceivers are disabled by the start of the next 8086 bus cycle (215 ns minimum from the same clock edge). On the positive clock transition of T4, DT/$\overline{R}$ is returned to transmit in preparation for a possible write operation on the next bus cycle. Since the system memory and I/O devices reside on a buffered system bus, they must three-state their outputs before the device for the next bus cycle is selected (approximately 2TCLCL) or the transceivers drive write data onto the bus (approximately 2TCLCL).

3. Write Cycle Timing

In the maximum mode, the 8288 provides normal and advanced write commands for memory and I/O. The advanced write commands are active a full clock cycle ahead of the normal write commands and have timing identical to the read commands. The advanced write pulse width is 2TCLCL – TCLMLmax + TCLMHmin = 375 ns while the normal write pulse width is TCLCL – TCLMLmax + TCLMHmin = 175 ns. Write data setup time to the selected device is a function of either the data valid delay from the 8086 (TCLDV) or the transceiver enable delay TCVNV. The worst case delay to valid write data is TCLDV = 110 ns minus transceiver propagation delays. This implies the data may not be valid until 100 ns after the advanced write command but will be valid approximately TCLCL – TCLDVmax + TCLMLmin = 100 ns prior to the leading edge of the normal write command. Data will be valid 2TCLCL – TCLDVmax + TCLMHmin = 300 ns before the trailing edge of either write command. The data and command overlap for the advanced command is 300 ns while the overlap with the normal write command is 175 ns. The transceivers are disabled a minimum of TCLCHmin – TCLMHmax + TCVNXmin = 85 ns after the write command while the CPU provides valid data a minimum of TCLCHmin – TCLMHmax + TCHDZmin = 85 ns. This guarantees write data hold of 85 ns after the write command. The transceivers are disabled TCLCL – TCVNXmax + TCHDTLmin = 155 ns (assuming TCHDTL = 0) prior to transceiver direction change for a subsequent read cycle.

4. Interrupt Acknowledge Timing

The maximum mode $\overline{INTA}$ sequence is logically identical to the minimum mode sequence. The transceiver control (DEN and DT/$\overline{R}$) and $\overline{INTA}$ command timing of each interrupt acknowledge cycle is identical to the read cycle. As in the minimum mode system, the multiplexed address/data bus will float from the leading edge of T1 for each $\overline{INTA}$ bus cycle and not be driven by the CPU until after T4 of each $\overline{INTA}$ cycle. The setup and hold times on the vector number for the second cycle are the same as data setup and hold for the read. If the device providing the interrupt vector number is connected to the local bus, TCLCL – TCLAZmax + TCLMLmin = 130 ns are available from 8086 bus float to $\overline{INTA}$ command active. The selected device on the local bus must disable the system data bus transceivers since DEN is still generated by the 8288.

If the 8288 is not in the IOB (I/O Bus) mode, the 8288 MCE/$\overline{PDEN}$ output becomes the MCE output. This output is active during each $\overline{INTA}$ cycle and overlaps the ALE signal during T1. The MCE is available for gating cascade addresses from a master 8259A onto three of the upper AD15-AD8 lines and allowing ALE to latch the cascade address into the address latches. The address lines may then be used to provide CAS address selection to slave 8259A's located on the system bus (reference Figure 3E5). MCE is active within 15 ns of status or the start of T1 for each $\overline{INTA}$ cycle. MCE should not enable the CAS lines onto the multiplexed bus during the first cycle since the CPU does not guarantee to float

the bus until 80 ns into the first $\overline{INTA}$ cycle. The first MCE can be inhibited by gating MCE with $\overline{LOCK}$. The 8086 $\overline{LOCK}$ output is activated during T2 of the first cycle and disabled during T2 of the second cycle. The overlap of $\overline{LOCK}$ with MCE allows the first MCE to be masked and the second MCE to gate the cascade address onto the local bus. Since the 8259A will not provide a cascade address until the second cycle, no information is lost. As with ALE, MCE is guaranteed valid within 58 ns of the start of T1 to allow 75 ns CAS address setup to the trailing edge of ALE. MCE remains active TCHCLmin – TCHLLmax + TCLMCLmin = 52 ns after ALE to provide data hold time to the latches.

If the 8288 is strapped in the IOB mode, the MCE output becomes $\overline{PDEN}$ and all I/O references are assumed to be devices on the local bus rather than the demultiplexed system bus. Since $\overline{INTA}$ cycles are considered I/O cycles, all interrupts are assumed to come from the local system and cascade addresses are not gated onto the system address bus. Additionally, the DEN signal is not enabled since no I/O transfers occur on the system bus. If the local I/O bus is also buffered by transceivers, the $\overline{PDEN}$ signal is used to enable those transceivers. $\overline{PDEN}$ A.C. characteristics are identical to DEN with $\overline{PDEN}$ enabled for I/O references and DEN enabled for instruction or memory data references.

5. Ready Timing

Ready timing based on address valid timing is the same for maximum and minimum mode systems. The delay from 8288 command valid to RDY valid at the 8284 is TCLCL – TCLMLmax – TRIVCLmin = 130 ns. This time is available for external circuits to determine the need to insert wait states and disable RDY or enable RDY to avoid wait states. $\overline{INTA}$, all read commands and advanced write commands provide this timing. The normal write command is not valid until after the RDY signal must be valid. Since both normal and advanced write commands are generated by the 8288 for all write cycles, the advanced write may be used to generate a RDY indication even though the selected device uses the normal write command.

Since separate commands are provided for memory and I/O, no M/$\overline{IO}$ signal is specifically available as in the minimum mode to allow an early 'wait state required' indication for I/O devices. The $\overline{S2}$ status line, however is logically equivalent to the M/$\overline{IO}$ signal and can be used for this purpose.

6. Other Considerations

The $\overline{RQ}$/$\overline{GT}$ timing is covered in the next section and will not be duplicated here. The only additional signals to be considered in the maximum mode are the queue status lines QS0, QS1. These signals are changed on the leading edge of each clock cycle (high to low transition) including idle and wait cycles (the queue status is independent of the bus activity). External logic may sample the lines on the low to high transition of each clock cycle. When sampled, the signals indicate the queue activity in the previous clock cycle and therefore lag the CPU's activity by one cycle. The $\overline{TEST}$ input requirements are identical to those stated for the minimum mode.

To inform the 8288 of HALT status when a HALT instruction is executed, the 8086 will initiate a status transition from passive to HALT status. The status change will cause the 8288 to emit an ALE pulse with an indeterminate address. Since no bus cycle is initiated (no command is issued), the results of this address will not affect CPU operation (i.e., no response such as READY is expected from the system). This allows external hardware to latch and decode all transitions in system status.

3G. Bus Control Transfer (HOLD/HLDA and $\overline{RQ}$/$\overline{GT}$)

The 8086 supports protocols for transferring control of the local bus between itself and other devices capable of acting as bus masters. The minimum mode configuration offers a signal level handshake similar to the 8080 and 8085 systems. The maximum mode provides an enhanced pulse sequence protocol designed to optimize utilization of CPU pins while extending the system configurations to two prioritized levels of alternate bus masters. These protocols are simply techniques for arbitration of control of the CPU's local bus and should not be confused with the need for arbitration of a system bus.

1. MINIMUM MODE

The minimum mode 8086 system uses a hold request input (HOLD) to the CPU and a hold acknowledge (HLDA) output from the CPU. To gain control of the bus, a device must assert HOLD to the CPU and wait for the HLDA before driving the bus. When the 8086 can relinquish the bus, it floats the $\overline{RD}$, $\overline{WR}$, $\overline{INTA}$ and M/$\overline{IO}$ command lines, the $\overline{DEN}$ and DT/$\overline{R}$ bus control lines and the multiplexed address/data/status lines. The ALE signal is not three-stated. The CPU acknowledges the request with HLDA to allow the requestor to take control of the bus. The requestor must maintain the HOLD request active until it no longer requires the bus. The HOLD request to the 8086 directly affects the bus interface unit and only indirectly affects the execution unit. The CPU will continue to execute from its internal queue until either more instructions are needed or an operand transfer is required. This allows a high degree of overlap between CPU and auxiliary bus master operation. When the requestor drops the HOLD signal, the 8086 will respond by dropping HLDA. The CPU will not re-drive the bus, command and control signals from three-state until it needs to perform a bus transfer. Since the 8086 may still be executing from its internal queue when HOLD drops, there may exist a period of time during which no device is driving the bus. To prevent the command lines from drifting below the minimum VIH level during the transition of bus control, 22K ohm pull up resistors should be connected to the bus command lines. The timing diagram in Figure 3G1 shows the handshake sequence and 8086 timing to sample HOLD, float the bus, and enable/disable HLDA relative to the CPU clock.

To guarantee valid system operation, the designer must assure that the requesting device does not assert con-

trol of the bus prior to the 8086 relinquishing control and that the device relinquishes control of the bus prior to the 8086 driving the bus. The HOLD request into the 8086 must be stable THVCH ns prior to the CPU's low to high clock transition. Since this input is not synchronized by the CPU, signals driving the HOLD input should be synchronized with the CPU clock to guarantee the setup time is not violated. Either clock edge may be used. The maximum delay between HLDA and the 8086 floating the bus is TCLAZmax – TCLHAVmin = 70 ns. If the system cannot tolerate the 70 ns overlap, HLDA active from the 8086 should be delayed to the device. The minimum delay for the CPU to drive the control bus from HOLD inactive is THVCHmin + 3TCLCL = 635 ns and THVCHmin + 3TCLCL + TCHCL = 701 ns to drive the multiplexed bus. If the device does not satisfy these requirements, HOLD inactive to the 8086 should be delayed. The delay from HLDA inactive to driving the busses is TCLCL + TCLCHmin – TCLHAVmax = 158 ns for the control bus and 2TCLCL – TCLHAVmax = 240 ns for the data bus.

1.1 Latency of HLDA to HOLD

The decision to respond to a HOLD request is made in the bus interface unit. The major factors that influence the decision are the current bus activity, the state of the $\overline{\text{LOCK}}$ signal internal to the CPU (activated by the software LOCK prefix) and interrupts.

If the $\overline{\text{LOCK}}$ is not active, an interrupt acknowledge cycle is not in progress and the BIU (Bus Interface Unit) is executing a T4 or TI when the HOLD request is received, the minimum latency to HLDA is:

35 ns	THVCH min (Hold setup)
65 ns	TCHCL min
200 ns	TCLCL (bus float delay)
10 ns	TCLHAV min (HLDA delay)
310 ns	@ 5 MHz

The maximum delay under these conditions is:

34 ns	(just missed setup time)
200 ns	delay to next sample
82 ns	TCHCL max
200 ns	TCLCL (bus float delay)
160 ns	TCLHAV max (HLDA delay)
677 ns	@ 5 MHz

If the BIU just initiated a bus cycle when the HOLD Request was received, the worst case response time is:

34 ns	THVCH (just missed)
82 ns	TCHCL max
7*200	bus cycle execution
N*200	N wait states/bus cycle
160 ns	TCLHAV max (HLDA delay)
1.676 μs	@ 5 MHz, no wait states

Note, the 200 ns delay for just missing is included in the delay for bus cycle execution. If the operand transfer is a word transfer to an odd byte boundary, two bus cycles are executed to perform the transfer. The BIU will not acknowledge a HOLD request between the two bus cycles. This type of transfer would extend the above maximum latency by four additional clocks plus N additional wait states. With no wait states in the bus cycle, the maximum would be 2.476 microseconds.

Although the minimum mode 8086 does not have a hardware $\overline{\text{LOCK}}$ output, the software LOCK prefix may still be included in the instruction stream. The CPU internally reacts to the LOCK prefix as would the maximum mode 8086. Therefore, the LOCK does not allow a HOLD request to be honored until completion of the instruction following the prefix. This allows an instruction which performs more than one memory reference (ex. ADD [BX], CX; which adds CX to [BX]) to execute without another bus master gaining control of the bus between memory references. Since the LOCK signal is active for one clock longer than the instruction execution, the maximum latency to HLDA is:

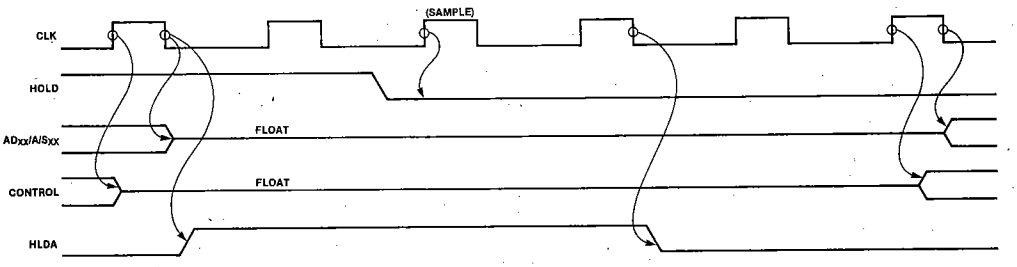


Figure 3G1. HOLD/HLDA Sequence

34 ns	THVCH (just miss)
200 ns	delay to next sample
82 ns	TCHCL max
(M + 1)*200 ns	LOCK instruction execution
200 ns	set up HLDA (internal)
160 ns	TCLHAV max (HLDA delay)
(M*200 ns) + 876 ns	@ 5 MHz

If the HOLD request is made at the beginning of an interrupt acknowledge sequence, the maximum latency to HLDA is:

34 ns	THVCH (just missed)
82 ns	TCHCL max
2600 ns	13 clock cycles for INTA
160 ns	TCLHAV max
2.876 μs	@ 5 MHz

1.2 Minimum Mode DMA Configuration

A typical use of the HOLD/HLDA signals in the minimum mode 8086 system is bus control exchange with DMA devices like the Intel 8257-5 or 8237 DMA controllers. Figure 3G2 gives a general interconnect for this type of configuration using the 8237-2. The DMA controller resides on the upper half of the 8086's local bus and shares the A8-A15 demultiplexing address latch of the 8086. All registers in the 8237-2 must be assigned odd addresses to allow initialization and interrogation by the CPU over the upper half of the data bus. The 8086 $\overline{RD}/\overline{WR}$ commands must be demultiplexed to provide separate I/O and memory commands which are compatible with the 8237-2 commands. The AEN control from the 8237-2 must disable the 8086 commands from the command bus, disable the address latches from the lower (A0-A7) and upper (A19-A16) address bus and select the 8237-2 address strobe (ADSTB) to the A8-A15 address latch. If the data bus is buffered, a pull-up resistor on the DEN line will keep the buffers disabled. The DMA controller will only transfer bytes between

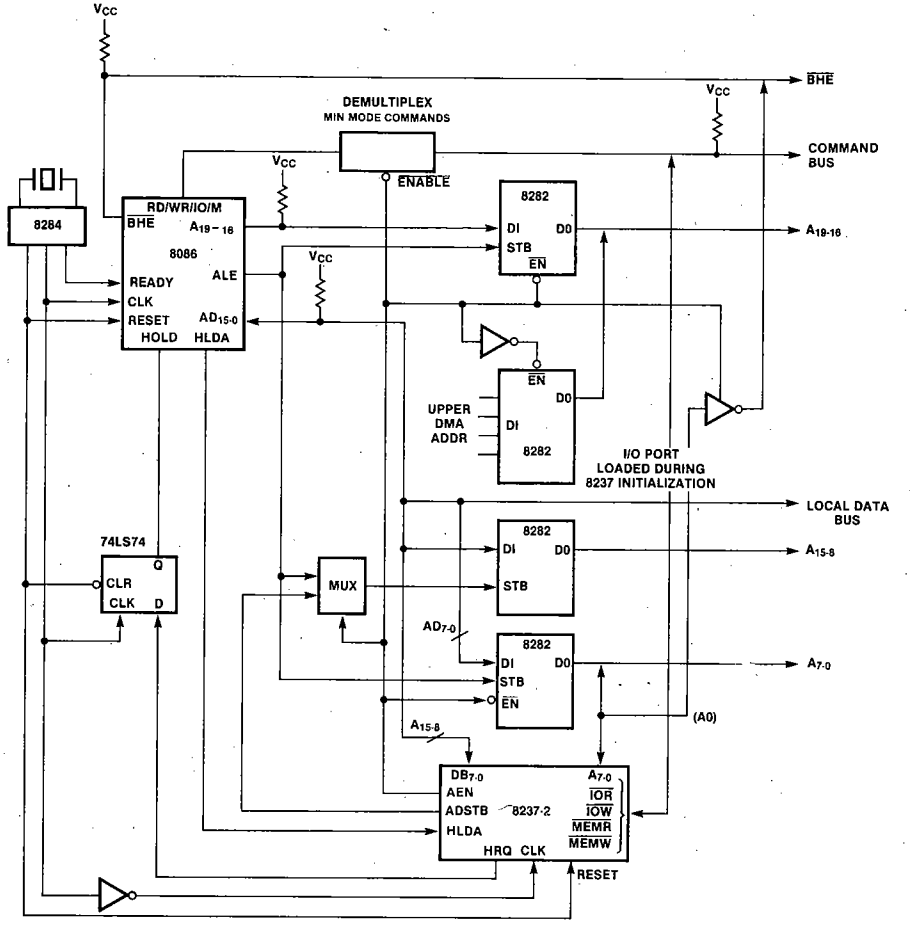


Figure 3G2. DMA Using the 8237-2

memory and I/O and requires the I/O devices to reside on an 8-bit bus derived from the 16-bit to 8-bit bus multiplex circuit given in Section 4. Address lines A7-A0 are driven directly by the 8237 and $\overline{BHE}$ is generated by inverting A0. If A19-A16 are used, they must be provided by an additional port with either a fixed value or initialized by software and enabled onto the address bus by AEN.

Figure 3G3 gives an interconnection for placing the 8257 on the system bus. By using a separate latch to hold the upper address from the 8257-5 and connecting the outputs to the address bus as shown, 16-bit DMA transfers are provided. In this configuration, AEN simultaneously enables A0 and $\overline{BHE}$ to allow word transfers. AEN still disables the CPU interface to the command and address busses.

2. MAXIMUM MODE ($\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$)

The maximum mode 8086 configuration supports a significantly different protocol for transferring bus control. When viewed with respect to the HOLD/HLDA sequence of the minimum mode, the protocol appears difficult to implement externally. However, it is necessary to understand the intent of the protocol and its purpose within the system architecture.

2.1 Shared System Bus ($\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ Alternative)

The maximum mode $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ sequence is intended to transfer control of the CPU local bus between the CPU and alternate bus masters which reside totally on the local bus and share the complete CPU interface to the system bus. The complete interface includes the address latches, data transceivers, 8288 bus controller and 8289 multi master bus arbiter. If the alternate bus masters in the system do not reside directly on the 8086 local bus, system bus arbitration is required rather than local CPU bus arbitration. To satisfy the need for multimaster system bus arbitration at each CPU's system interface, the 8289 bus arbiter should be used rather than the CPU $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ logic.

To allow a device with a simple HOLD/HLDA protocol to gain control of a single CPU system bus, the circuit in Figure 3G4 could be used. The design is effectively a simple bus arbiter which isolates the CPU from the system bus when an alternate bus master issues a HOLD request. The output of the circuit, $\overline{AEN}$ (Address ENable), disables the 8288 and 8284 when the 8086 indicates idle status ($\overline{S0}$,$\overline{S1}$,$\overline{S2}$ = 1), $\overline{LOCK}$ is not active and a HOLD request is active. With $\overline{AEN}$ inactive, the 8288 three-states the command outputs and disables DEN

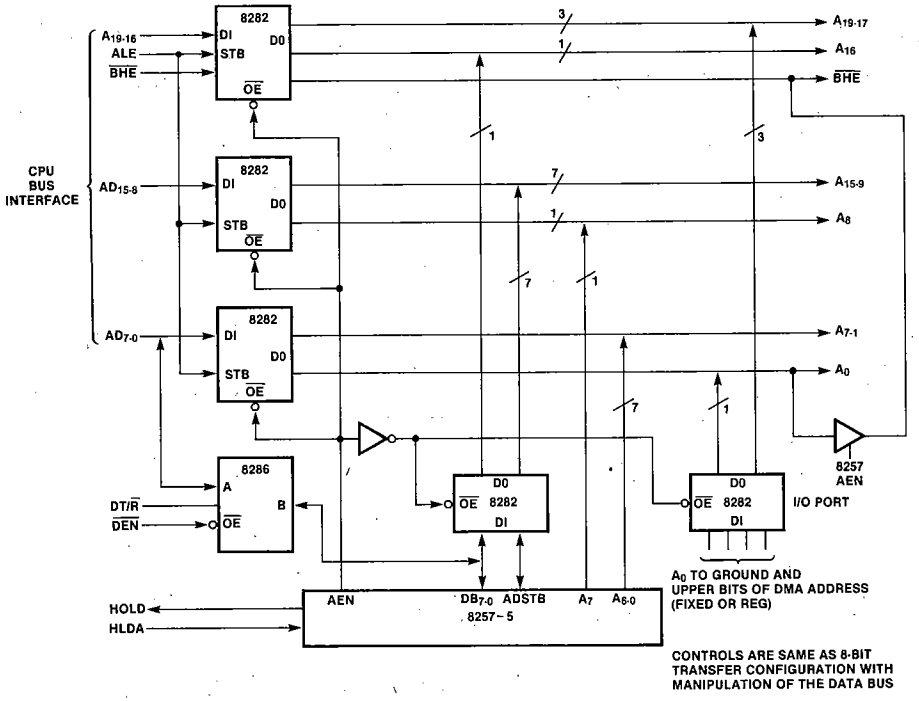


Figure 3G3. 8086 Min System, 8257 on System Bus 16-Bit Transfers

which three-states the data bus transceivers. $\overline{AEN}$ must also three-state the address latch (8282 or 8283) outputs. These actions remove the 8086 from the system bus and allow the requesting device to drive the system bus. The $\overline{AEN}$ signal to the 8284 disables the ready input and forces a bus cycle initiated by the 8086 to wait until the 8086 regains control of the system bus. The CPU may actively drive its local bus during this interval.

The requesting device will not gain control of the bus during an 8086 initiated bus cycle, a locked instruction or an interrupt acknowledge cycle. The $\overline{LOCK}$ signal from the 8086 is active between $\overline{INTA}$ cycles to guarantee the CPU maintains control of the bus. Unlike the minimum mode 8086 HOLD response, this arbitration circuit allows the requestor to gain control of the bus between consecutive bus cycles which transfer a word operand on an odd address boundary and are not locked. Depending on the characteristics of the requesting device, any of the 74LS74 outputs can be used to generate a HLDA to the device.

Upon completion of its bus operations, the alternate bus master must relinquish control of the system bus and drop the HOLD request. After $\overline{AEN}$ goes inactive, the address latches and data transceivers are enabled but, if a CPU initiated bus cycle is pending, the 8288 will not drive the command bus until a minimum of 105 ns or maximum of 275 ns later. If the system is normally not ready, the 8284 $\overline{AEN}$ input may immediately be enabled with ready returning to the CPU when the selected device completes the transfer. If the system is normally ready, the 8284 $\overline{AEN}$ input must be delayed long enough to provide access time equivalent to a normal bus cycle. The 74LS74 latches in the design provide a minimum of TCLCHmin for the alternate device to float the system bus after releasing HOLD. They also provide 2TCLCL ns address access and 2TCLCL – TAEVCHmax ns (8288 command enable delay) command access prior to enabling 8284 ready detection. If HLDA is generated as shown in Figure 3G4, TCLCL ns are available for the 8086 to release the bus prior to issuing HLDA while HLDA is dropped almost immediately upon loss of HOLD.

A circuit configuration for an 8257-5 using this technique to interface with a maximum mode 8086 can be derived from Figure 3G3. The 8257-5 has its own address latch for buffering the address lines A15-A8 and uses its $\overline{AEN}$ output to enable the latch onto the address bus. The maximum latency from HOLD to HLDA for this circuit is dependent on the state of the system when the HOLD is issued. For an idle system the maximum delay is the propagation delay through the nand gate and R/S flip-flop (TD1) plus 2TCLCL plus TCLCHmax plus propagation delay of the 74LS74 and 74LS02 (TD2). For a locked instruction it becomes: TD1 + TD2 + (M + 2) *TCLCL + TCLCHmax where M is the number of clocks required for execution of the locked instruction. For the interrupt acknowledge cycle the latency is TD1 + TD2 + 9 *TCLCL + TCLCHmax.

2.2 Shared Local Bus ($\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ Usage)

The $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ protocol was developed to allow up to two instruction set extension processors (co-processors) or other special function processors (like the 8089 I/O processor in local mode) to reside directly on the 8086 local bus. Each $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ pin of the 8086 supports the full protocol for exchange of bus control (Fig. 3G5). The sequence consists of a request from the alternate bus master to gain control of the system bus, a grant from the CPU to indicate the bus has been relinquished and a release pulse from the alternate master when done. The two $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ pins ($\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT0}$ and $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT1}$) are prioritized with $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT0}$ having the highest priority. The prioritization only occurs if requests have been received on both pins before a response has been given to either. For example, if a request is received on $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT1}$ followed by a request on $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT0}$ prior to a grant on $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT1}$, $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT0}$ will gain priority over $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT1}$. However, if $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT1}$ had already received a grant, a request on $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT0}$ must wait until a release pulse is received on $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT1}$.

The request/grant sequence interaction with the bus interface unit is similar to HOLD/HLDA. The CPU continues to execute until a bus transfer for additional instructions or data is required. If the release pulse is

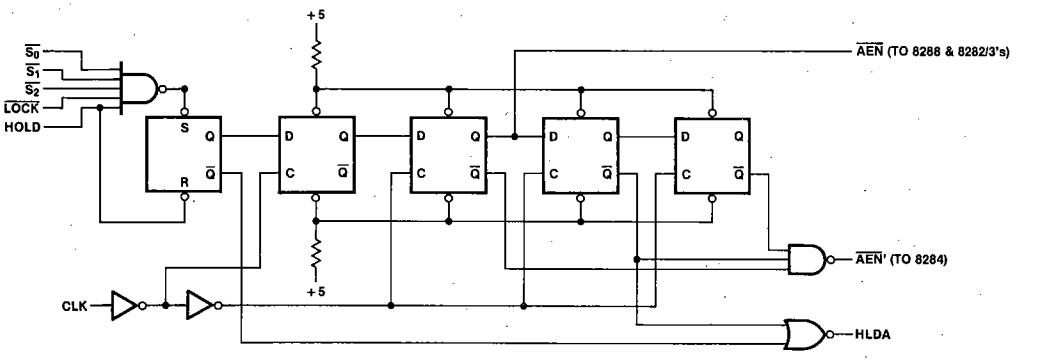


Figure 3G4. Circuit to Translate HOLD into AEN Disable for Max Mode 8086

received before the CPU needs the bus, it will not drive the bus until a transfer is required.

Upon receipt of a request pulse, the 8086 floats the multiplexed address, data and status bus, the $\overline{S0}$, $\overline{S1}$, and $\overline{S2}$ status lines, the $\overline{LOCK}$ pin and $\overline{RD}$. This action does not disable the 8288 command outputs from driving the command bus and does not disable the address latches from driving the address bus. The 8288 contains internal pull-up resistors on the $\overline{S0}$, $\overline{S1}$, and $\overline{S2}$ status lines to maintain the passive state while the 8086 outputs are three-state. The passive state prevents the 8288 from initiating any commands or activating DEN to enable the transceivers buffering the data bus. If the device issuing the $\overline{RQ}$ does not use the 8288, it must disable the 8288 command outputs by disabling the 8288 $\overline{AEN}$ input. Also, address latches not used by the requesting device must be disabled.

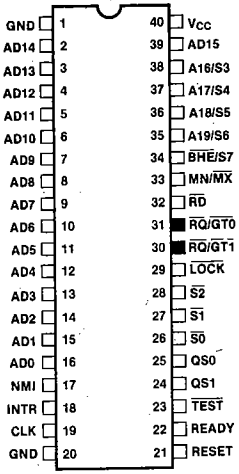


Figure 3G5. 8086 RQ/GT Connections

2.3 $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ Operation

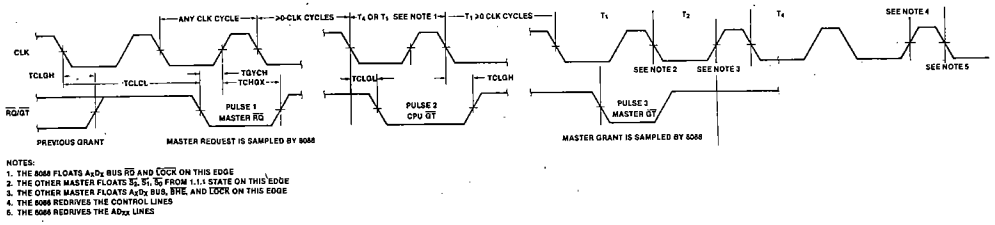
Detailed timing of the $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ sequence is given in Figure 3G6. To request a transfer of bus control via the $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ lines, the device must drive the line low for no more than one CPU clock interval to generate a request pulse. The pulse must be synchronized with the CPU clock to guarantee the appropriate setup and hold times to the clock edge which samples the $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ lines in the CPU. After issuing a request pulse, the device must begin sampling for a grant pulse with the next low to high clock edge. Since the 8086 can respond with a grant pulse in the clock cycle immediately following the request, the $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ line may not return to the positive level between the request and grant pulses. Therefore edge triggered logic is not valid for capturing a grant pulse. It also implies the circuitry which generates the request pulse must guarantee the request is removed in time to detect a grant from the CPU. After receiving the grant pulse, the requesting device may drive the local bus. Since the 8086 does not float the address and data bus, $\overline{LOCK}$ or $\overline{RD}$ until the high to low clock transition following the low to high clock transition the requestor uses to sample for the grant, the requestor should wait the float delay of the 8086 (TCLAZ) before driving the local bus. This precaution prevents bus contention during the access of bus control by the requestor.

To return control of the bus to the 8086, the alternate bus master relinquishes bus control and issues a release pulse on the same $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ line. The 8086 may drive the $\overline{S0}$-$\overline{S2}$ status lines, $\overline{RD}$ and $\overline{LOCK}$, three clock cycles after detecting the release pulse and the address/data bus TCHCLmin ns (clock high time) after the status lines. The alternate bus master should be three-stated off the local bus and have other 8086 interface circuits (8288 and address latches) re-enabled within the 8086 delay to regain control of the bus.

2.4 $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ Latency

The $\overline{RQ}$ to $\overline{GT}$ latency for a single $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ line is similar to the HOLD to HLDA latency. The cases given for the minimum mode 8086 also apply to the maximum mode. For each case the delay from $\overline{RQ}$ detection by the CPU to $\overline{GT}$ detection by the requestor is:

(HOLD to HLDA delay) – (THVCH + TCHCL + TCLHAV)



NOTES:
1. THE 8086 FLOATS A_0-D_7 BUS $\overline{RD}$ AND $\overline{LOCK}$ ON THIS EDGE
2. THE OTHER MASTER FLOATS $\overline{S_2}$, $\overline{S1}$, $\overline{S_0}$ FROM 1.1.1 STATE ON THIS EDGE
3. THE OTHER MASTER FLOATS A_0-D_7 BUS, $\overline{BHE}$, AND $\overline{LOCK}$ ON THIS EDGE
4. THE 8086 REDRIVES THE CONTROL LINES
5. THE 8086 REDRIVES THE AD_{XX} LINES

Figure 3G6. Request/Grant Sequence

This gives a clock cycle maximum delay for an idle bus interface. All other cases are the minimum mode result minus 476 ns. If the 8086 has previously issued a grant on one of the $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ lines, a request on the other $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ line will not receive a grant until the first device releases the interface with a release pulse on its $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ line. The delay from release on one $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ line to a grant on the other is typically one clock period as shown in Figure 3G7. Occasionally the delay from a release on $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT1}$ to a grant on $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT0}$ will take two clock cycles and is a function of a pending request for transfer of control from the execution unit. The latency from request to grant when the interface is under control of a bus master on the other $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ line is a function of the other bus master. The protocol embodies no mechanism for the CPU to force an alternate bus master off the bus. A watchdog timer should be used to prevent an errant alternate bus master from 'hanging' the system.

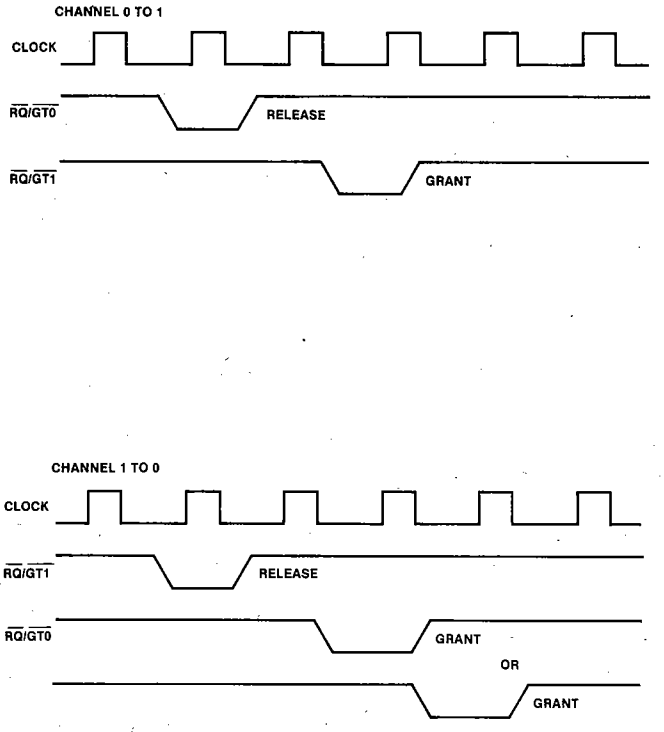


Figure 3G7. Channel Transfer Delay

2.5 RQ/GT to HOLD/HLDA Conversion

A circuit for translating a HOLD/HLDA hand-shake sequence into a $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ pulse sequence is given in Figure 3G8. After receiving the grant pulse, the HLDA is enabled TCHCLmin ns before the CPU has three-stated the bus. If the requesting circuit drives the bus within 20 ns of HLDA, it may be desirable to delay the acknowledge one clock period. The HLDA is dropped no later than one clock period after HOLD is disabled. The HLDA also drops at the beginning of the release pulse to provide 2TCLCL + TCLCH for the requestor to relinquish control of the status lines and 3TCLCL to float the remaining signals.

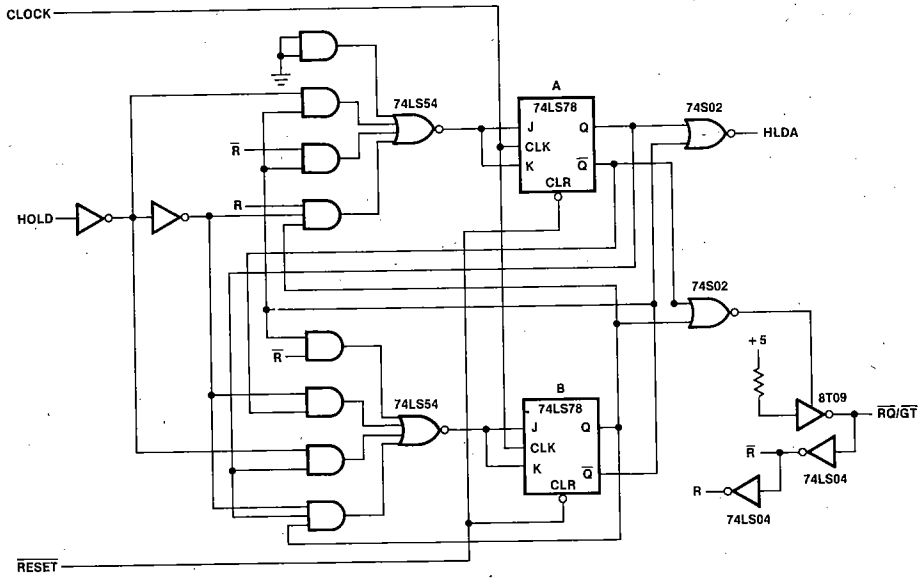


Figure 3G8a. HOLD/HLDA◄► $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ Conversion Circuit

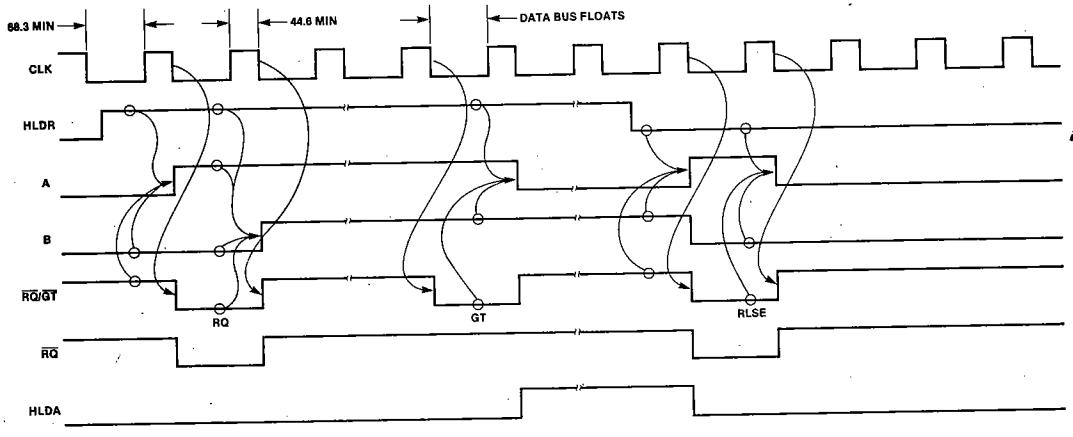


Figure 3G8b. HOLD/HLDA◄► $\overline{RQ}/\overline{GT}$ Conversion Timing

4. INTERFACING WITH I/O

The 8086 is capable of interfacing with 8- and 16-bit I/O devices using either I/O instructions or memory mapped I/O. The I/O instructions allow the I/O devices to reside in a separate I/O address space while memory mapped I/O allows the full power of the instruction set to be used for I/O operations. Up to 64K bytes of I/O mapped I/O may be defined in an 8086 system. To the programmer, the separate I/O address space is only accessible with INPUT and OUTPUT commands which transfer data between I/O devices and the AX (for 16-bit data transfers) or AL (for 8-bit data transfers) register. The first 256 bytes of the I/O space (0 to 255) are directly addressable by the I/O instructions while the entire 64K is accessible via register indirect addressing through the DX register. The later technique is particularly desirable for service procedures that handle more than one device by allowing the desired device address to be passed to the procedure as a parameter. I/O devices may be connected to the local CPU bus or the buffered system bus.

4A. Eight-Bit I/O

Eight-bit I/O devices may be connected to either the upper or lower half of the data bus. Assigning an equal number of devices to the upper and lower halves of the bus will distribute the bus loading. If a device is connected to the upper half of the data bus, all I/O addresses assigned to the device must be odd (A0 = 1). If the device is on the lower half of the bus, its addresses must be even (A0 = 0). The address assignment directs the eight-bit transfer to the upper (odd byte address) or lower (even byte address) half of the sixteen-bit data bus. Since A0 will always be a one or zero for a specific device, A0 cannot be used as an address input to select registers within a specific device. If a device on the upper half of the bus and one on the lower half are assigned addresses that differ only in A0 (adjacent odd and even addresses), A0 and $\overline{BHE}$ must be conditions of chip select decode to prevent a write to one device from erroneously performing a write to the other. Several techniques for generating I/O device chip selects are given in Figure 4A1.

The first technique (a) uses separate 8205's to generate chip selects for odd and even addressed byte peripherals. If a word transfer is performed to an even addressed device, the adjacent odd addressed I/O device is also selected. This allows accessing the devices individually with byte transfers or simultaneously as a 16-bit device with word transfers. Figure 4A1(b) restricts the chip selects to byte transfers, however a word transfer to an odd address will cause the 8086 to run two byte transfers that the decode technique will not detect. The third technique simply uses a single 8205 to generate odd and even device selects for byte transfers and will only select the even addressed eight-bit device on a word transfer to an even address.

If greater than 256 bytes of the I/O space or memory mapped I/O is used, additional decoding beyond what is shown in the examples may be necessary. This can be done with additional TTL, 8205's or bipolar PROMs (Intel's 3605A). The bipolar PROMs are slightly slower than multiple levels of TTL (50 ns vs 30 to 40 ns for TTL) but provide full decoding in a single package and allow inserting a new PROM to reconfigure the system I/O map without circuit board or wiring modifications (Fig. 4A2).

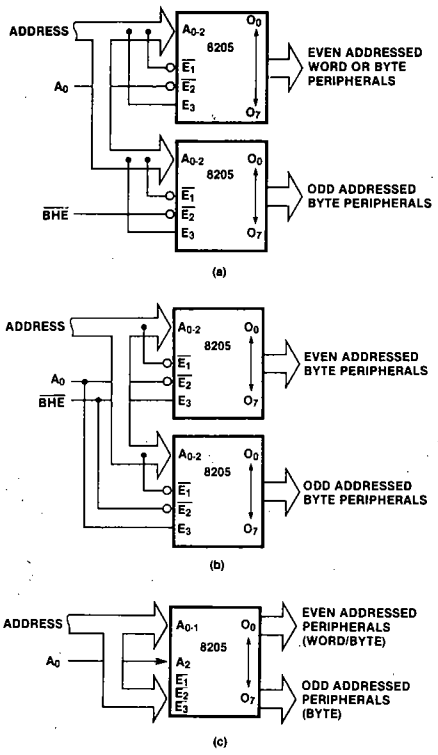


Figure 4A1. Techniques for I/O Device Chip Selects

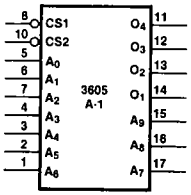


Figure 4A2. Bipolar PROM Decoder

One last technique for interfacing with eight-bit peripherals is considered in Figure 4A3. The sixteen-bit data bus is multiplexed onto an eight-bit bus to accommodate byte oriented DMA or block transfers to memory mapped eight-bit I/O. Devices connected to this interface may be assigned a sequence of odd and even addresses rather than all odd or even.

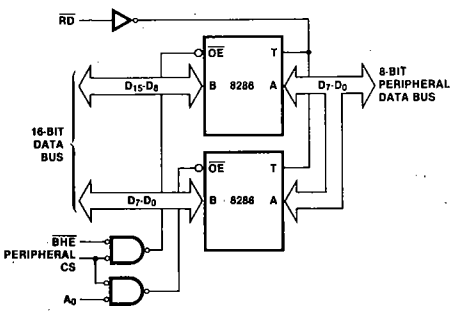
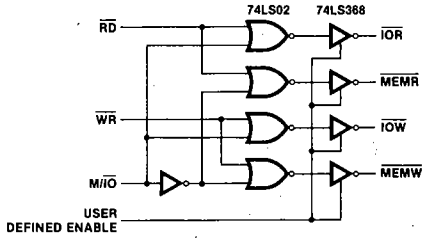


Figure 4A3. 16- to 8-Bit Bus Conversion



NOTE: IF IT IS NOT NECESSARY TO THREE-STATE THE COMMAND LINES, A DECODER (8205 OR 74S138) COULD BE USED. THE 74LS257 IS NOT RECOMMENDED SINCE THE OUTPUTS MAY EXPERIENCE VOLTAGE SPIKES WHEN ENTERING OR LEAVING THREE-STATE.

Figure 4C1. Decoding Memory and I/O RD and WR Commands for Minimum Mode 8086 Systems

4B. Sixteen-Bit I/O

For obvious reasons of efficient bus utilization and simplicity of device selection, sixteen-bit I/O devices should be assigned even addresses. To guarantee the device is selected only for word operations, A0 and BHE should be conditions of chip select code (Fig. 4B1).

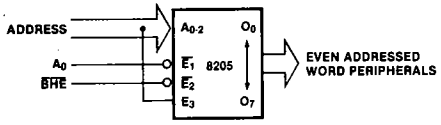


Figure 4B1. Sixteen-Bit I/O Decode

4C. General Design Considerations

MIN/MAX, MEMORY I/O MAPPED AND LINEAR SELECT

Since the minimum mode 8086 has common read and write commands for memory and I/O, if the memory and I/O address spaces overlap, the chip selects must be qualified by M/IO to determine which address space the devices are assigned to. This restriction on chip select decoding can be removed if the I/O and memory addresses in the system do not overlap and are properly decoded; all I/O is memory mapped; or RD, WR and M/IO are decoded to provide separate memory and I/O read/write commands (Fig. 4C1). The 8288 bus controller in the maximum mode 8086 system generates separate I/O and memory commands in place of a M/IO signal. An I/O device is assigned to the I/O space or memory space (memory mapped I/O) by connection of either I/O or memory command lines to the command inputs of the device. To allow overlap of the memory and I/O address space, the device must not respond to chip select alone but must require a combination of chip select and a read or write command.

Linear select techniques (Fig. 4C2) for I/O devices can only be used with devices that either reside in the I/O address space or require more than one active chip select (at least one low active and one high active). Devices with a single chip select input cannot use linear select if they are memory mapped. This is due to the assignment of memory address space FFFFF0H-FFFFFFH to reset startup and memory space 00000H-003FFH to interrupt vectors.

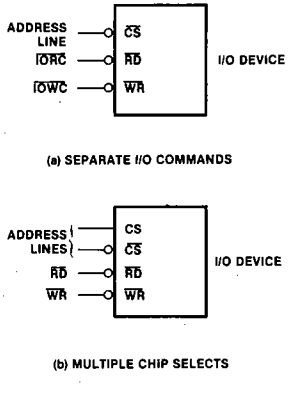


Figure 4C2. Linear Select for I/O

4D. Determining I/O Device Compatibility

This section presents a set of A.C. characteristics which represent the timing of the asynchronous bus interface of the 8086. The equations are expressed in terms of the CPU clock (when applicable) and are derived for minimum and maximum modes of the 8086. They represent the bus characteristics at the CPU.

The results can be used to determine I/O device requirements for operation on a single CPU local bus or buffered system bus. These values are not applicable to

a Multibus system bus interface. The requirements for a Multibus system bus are available in the Multibus interface specification.

A list of bus parameters, their definition and how they relate to the A.C. characteristics of Intel peripherals are given in Table 4D1. Cycle dependent values of the parameters are given in Table 4D2. For each equation, if more than one signal path is involved, the equation reflects the worst case path.

ex. TAVRL(address valid before read active) =
(1) Address from CPU to $\overline{RD}$ active
(or)
(2) ALE (to enable the address through the address latches) to $\overline{RD}$ active

The worst case delay path is (1).

For the maximum mode 8086 configurations, TAVWLA, TWLWHA and TWLCLA are relative to the advanced write signal while TAVWL, TWLWH and TWLCL are relative to the normal write signal.

TABLE 4D1. PARAMETERS FOR PERIPHERAL COMPATIBILITY

TAVRL — Address stable before RD leading edge	(TAR)
TRHAX — Address hold after RD trailing edge	(TRA)
TRLRH — Read pulse width	(TRR)
TRLDV — Read to data valid delay	(TRD)
TRHDZ — Read trailing edge to data floating	(TDF)
TAVDV — Address to valid data delay	(TAD)
TRLRL — Read cycle time	(TRCYC)
TAVWL — Address valid before write leading edge	(TAW)
TAVWLA — Address valid before advanced write	(TAW)
TWHAX — Address hold after write trailing edge	(TWA)
TWLWH — Write pulse width	(TWW)
TWLWHA — Advanced write pulse width	(TWW)
TDVWH — Data set up to write trailing edge	(TDW)
TWHDX — Data hold from write trailing edge	(TWD)
TWLCL — Write recovery time	(TRV)
TWLCLA — Advanced write recovery time	(TRV)
TSVRL — Chip select stable before RD leading edge	(TAR)
TRHSX — Chip select hold after RD trailing edge	(TRA)
TSLDV — Chip select to data valid delay	(TRD)
TSVWL — Chip select stable before WR leading edge	(TAW)
TWHSX — Chip select hold after WR trailing edge	(TWA)
TSVWLA — Chip select stable before advanced write	(TAW)

Symbols in parentheses are equivalent parameters specified for Intel peripherals.

In the given list of equations, TWHDXB is the data hold time from the trailing edge of write for the minimum mode with a buffered data bus. For this equation, TCVCTX cannot be a minimum for data hold and a maximum for write inactive. The maximum difference is 50 ns giving the result TCLCH-50. If the reader wishes to verify the equations or derive others, refer to Section 3F for assistance with interpreting the 8086 bus timing diagrams.

Figure 4D1 shows four representative configurations and the compatible Intel peripherals (including wait states if required) for each configuration are given in Table 4D3. Configuration 1 and 2 are minimum mode demultiplexed bus 8086 systems without (1) and with (2) data bus transceivers. Configurations 3 and 4 are maximum mode systems with one (3) and two (4) levels of address and data buffering. The last configuration is characteristic of a multi-board system with bus buffers on each board. The 5 MHz parameter values for these configurations are given in Table 4D4 and demonstrate the relaxed device requirements for even a large complex configuration. The analysis assumes all components are exhibiting the specified worst case parameter values and are under the corresponding temperature, voltage and capacitive load conditions. If the capacitive loading on the 8282/83 or 8286/87 is less than the maximum, graphs of delay vs. capacitive loading in the respective data sheets should be used to determine the appropriate delay values.

TABLE 4D2. CYCLE DEPENDENT PARAMETER REQUIREMENTS FOR PERIPHERALS

(a) Minimum Mode

TAVRL = TCLCL + TCLRLmin − TCLAVmax = TCLCL − 100
TRHAX = TCLCL − TCLRHmax + TCLLHmin = TCLCL − 150
TRLRH = 2TCLCL − 60 = 2TCLCL − 60
TRLDV = 2TCLCL − TCLRLmax − TDVCLmin = 2TCLCL − 195
TRHDZ = TRHAVmin = 155 ns
TAVDV = 3TCLCL − TDVCLmin − TCLAVmax = 3TCLCL − 140
TRLRL = 4TCLCL = 4TCLCL
TAVWL = TCLCL + TCVCTVmin − TCLAVmax = TCLCL − 100
TWHAX = TCLCL + TCLLHmin − TCVCTXmax = TCLCL − 110
TWLWH = 2TCLCL − 40 = 2TCLCL − 40
TDVWH = 2TCLCL + TCVCTXmin − TCLDVmax = 2TCLCL − 100
TWHDX = TWHDZmin = 89
TWLCL = 4TCLCL = 4TCLCL
TWHDXB = TCLCHmin + (− TCVCTXmax + TCVCTXmin) = TCLCHmin − 50

Note: Delays relative to chip select are a function of the chip select decode technique used and are equal to: equivalent delay from address − chip select decode delay.

(b) Maximum Mode

TAVRL = TCLCL + TCLMLmin − TCLAVmax = TCLCL − 100
TRHAX = TCLCL − TCLMHmax + TCLLHmin = TCLCL − 40
TRLRH = 2TCLCL − TCLMLmax + TCLMHmin = 2TCLCL − 25
TRLDV = 2TCLCL − TCLMLmax − TDVCLmin = 2TCLCL − 65
TRHDZ = TRHAVmin = 155
TAVDV = 3TCLCL − TDVCLmin − TCLAVmax = 3TCLCL − 140
TRLRL = 4TCLCL = 4TCLCL
TAVWLA = TAVRL = TCLCL − 100
TAVWL = TAVRL + TCLCL = 2TCLCL − 100
TWHAX = TRHAX = TCLCL − 40
TWLWHA = TRLRH = 2TCLCL − 25
TWLWH = TRLRH − TCLCL = TCLCL − 25
TDVWH = 2TCLCL + TCLMHmin − TCLDVmax = 2TCLCL − 100
TWHDX = TCLCHmin − TCLMHmax + TCHDZmin = TCLCHmin − 30
TWLCL = 3TCLCL = 3TCLCL
TWLCLA = 4TCLCL = 4TCLCL

TABLE 4D3. COMPATIBLE PERIPHERALS (5 MHz 8086)

	Configuration			
	Minimum Mode		Maximum Mode	
	Unbuffered	Buffered	Buffered	Fully Buffered
8251A	✓	1W	✓	✓
8253-5	✓	1W	✓	✓
8255A-5	✓	1W	✓	✓
8257-5	✓	1W	✓	✓
8259A	✓	✓	✓	✓
8271	✓	1W	✓	✓
8273	✓	1W	✓	✓
8275	✓	1W	✓	✓
8279-5	✓	1W	✓	✓
8041A*	✓	1W	✓	✓
8741A	✓	1W	✓	✓
8291	✓	✓	✓	✓

*Includes other Intel peripherals based on the 8041A (i.e., 8292, 8294, 8295).

✓ implies full operation with no wait states.

W implies the number of wait states required.

TABLE 4D4. PERIPHERAL REQUIREMENTS FOR FULL SPEED OPERATION WITH 5 MHz 8086

	Configuration			
	Minimum Mode		Maximum Mode	
	Unbuffered	Buffered	Buffered	Fully Buffered
TAVRL	70	72	70	58
TRHAX	57	27	169	141
TRLRH	340	320	375	347
TRLDV	205	150	305	261
TRHDZ	155	158	382	360
TAVDV	430	400	400	372
TRLRL	800	770	800	772
TAVWL	70	72	270	258
TAVWLA	—	—	70	58
TWHAX	97	67	169	141
TWLWH	360	340	175	147
TWLWHA	—	—	375	347
TDVWH	300	339	270	258
TWHDX	88	15	95	13
TWLCL	800	772	600	572
TWLCLA	—	—	800	772
TSVRL	52	54	52	40
TRHSX	50	50	171	143
TSLDV	412	382	382	354
TSVWL	52	54	252	240
TWHSX	90	90	171	143
TSVWLA	—	—	52	40

— Not applicable.

Peripheral compatibility is determined from the equations given for the CPU by modifying them to account for additional delays from address latches and data transceivers in the configuration. Once the system configuration is selected, the system requirements can be determined at the peripheral interface and used to evaluate compatibility of the peripheral to the system. During this process, two areas must be considered. First, can the device operate at maximum bus bandwidth and if not, how many wait states are required. Second, are there any problems that cannot be resolved by wait states.

Examples of the first are TRLRH (read pulse width) and TRLDV (read access or $\overline{RD}$ active to output data valid). Consider address access time (valid address to valid data) for the maximum mode fully buffered configuration.

TAVDV = 3TCYC − 140 ns — address latch delay — address buffer delay — chip select decode delay — 2 transceiver delays

Assuming inverting latches, buffers and transceivers with 22 ns max delays (8283, 8287) and a bipolar PROM decode with 50 ns delay, the result is:

TAVDV = 322 ns @ 5 MHz

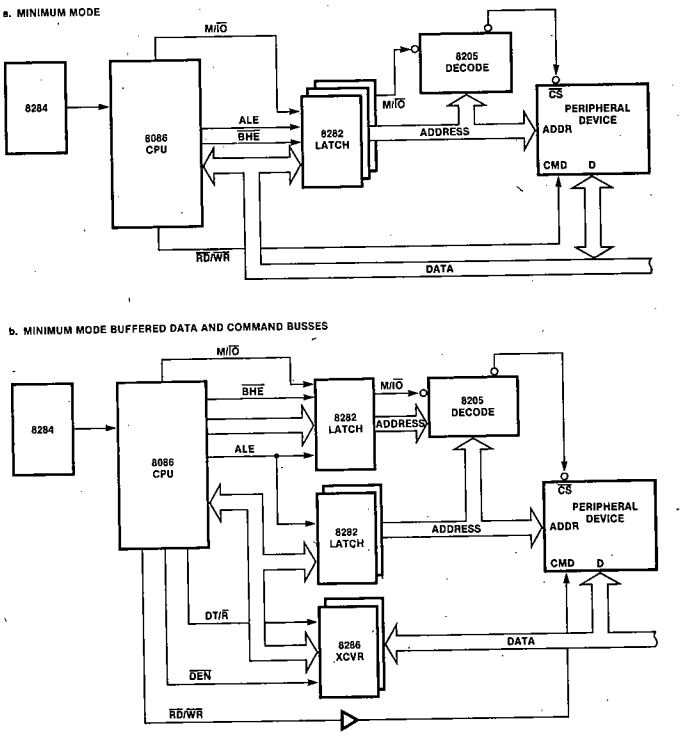
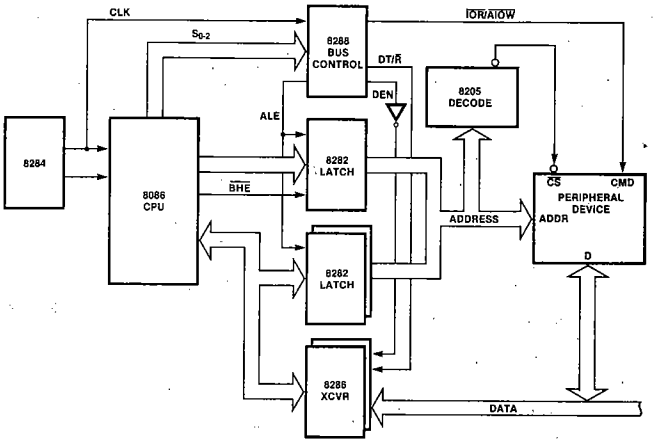


Figure 4D1. 8086 System Configurations

c. MAXIMUM MODE BUFFERED DATA BUS



NOTE: FOR OPTIMUM PERFORMANCE WITH INTEL PERIPHERALS, $\overline{AIOW}$ (ADVANCED WRITE) SHOULD BE USED.

d. MAXIMUM MODE DOUBLE BUFFERED SYSTEM

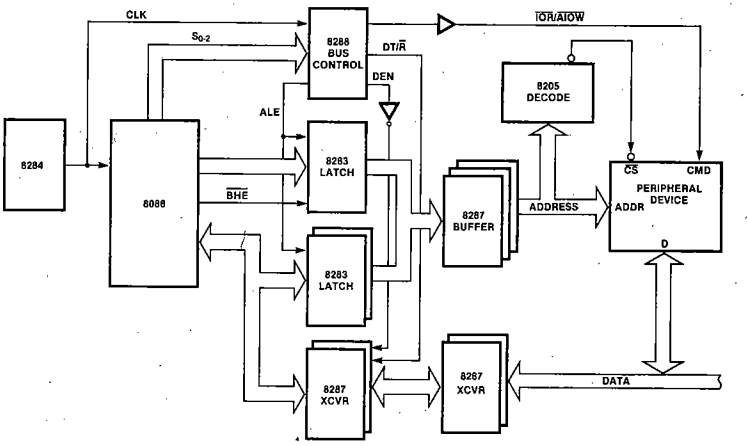


Figure 4D1. 8086 System Configurations (Con't)

The result gives the address to data valid delay required at the peripheral (in this configuration) to satisfy zero wait state CPU access time. If the maximum delay specified for the peripheral is less than the result, this parameter is compatible with zero wait state CPU operation. If not, wait states must be inserted until TAVDV + n * TCYC (n is the number of wait states) is greater than the peripherals maximum delay. If several parameters require wait states, either the largest number required should always be used or different transfer cycles can insert the maximum number required for that cycle.

The second area of concern includes TAVRL (address set up to read) and TWHDX (data hold after write). Incompatibilities in this area cannot be resolved by the insertion of wait states and may require either additional hardware, slowing down the CPU (if the parameter is related to the clock) or not using the device.

As an example consider address valid prior to advanced write low (TAVWLA) for the maximum mode fully buffered system.

TAVWLA = TCYC – 100 ns — address latch delay — address buffer delay — chip select decode delay + write buffer delay (minimum)

Assuming inverting latches and buffers with 22 ns delay (8283, 8287) and an 8205 address decoder with 18 ns delay

TAVWLA = 38 ns which is the time a 5 MHz 8086 system provides

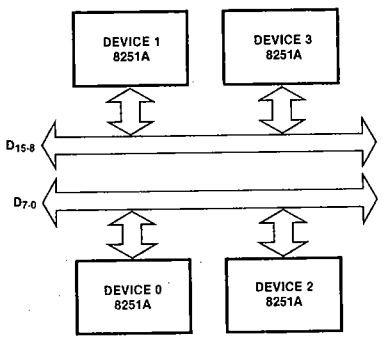
4E. I/O Examples

1. Consider an interrupt driven procedure for handling multiple communication lines. On receiving an interrupt from one of the lines, the invoked procedure polls the lines (reading the status of each) to determine which line to service. The procedure does not enable lines but simply services input and output requests until the associated output buffer is empty (for output requests) or until an input line is terminated (for the example only EOT is considered). On detection of the terminate condition, the routine will disable the line. It is assumed that other routines will fill a lines output buffer and enable the device to request output or empty the input buffer and enable the device to input additional characters.

The routine begins operation by loading CX with a count of the number of lines in the system and DX with the I/O address of the first line. The I/O addresses are assigned as shown in Figure 4E1 with 8251A's as the I/O devices. The status of each line is read to determine if it needs service. If yes, the appropriate routine is called to input or output a character. After servicing the line or if no service is needed, CX is decremented and DX is incremented to test the next line. After all lines have been tested and serviced, the routine terminates. If all interrupts from the lines are OR'd together, only one interrupt is used for all lines. If the interrupt is input to the CPU through an 8259A interrupt controller, the 8259A should be programmed in the level triggered mode to guarantee all line interrupts are serviced.

To service either an input or output request, the called routine transfers DX to BX, and shifts BX to form the offset for this device into the table of input or output buffers. The first entry in the buffer is an index to the next character position in the buffer and is loaded into the SI register. By specifying the base address of the table of buffers as a displacement into the data segment, the base + index + displacement addressing mode allows direct access to the appropriate memory location. 8086 code for part of this example is shown in Figure 4E2.

2. As a second example, consider using memory mapped I/O and the 8086 string primative instructions to perform block transfers between memory and I/O. By assigning a block of the memory address space (equivalent in size to the maximum block to be transferred to the I/O device) and decoding this address space to generate the I/O device's chip select, the block transfer capability is easily implemented. Figure 4E3 gives an interconnect for 16-bit I/O devices while Figure 4E4 incorporates the 16-bit bus to 8-bit bus multiplexing scheme to support 8-bit I/O devices. A code example to perform such a transfer is shown in Figure 4E5.



DEVICES ARE CONNECTED TO THE UPPER AND LOWER HALVES OF THE DATA BUS.

ADDRESS		
0	DEVICE 0	DATA
1	DEVICE 1	DATA
2	DEVICE 0	CONTROL/STATUS
3	DEVICE 1	CONTROL/STATUS
4	DEVICE 2	DATA
5	DEVICE 3	DATA
6	DEVICE 2	CONTROL/STATUS
7	DEVICE 3	CONTROL/STATUS
ETC.	"	"

Figure 4E1. Device Assignment

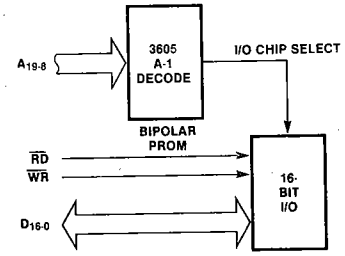
```
; THIS CODE DEMONSTRATES TESTING DEVICE
; STATUS FOR SERVICE, CONSTRUCTING THE
; APPROPRIATE LINE BUFFER ADDRESS FOR INPUT
; AND OUTPUT AND SERVICING AN INPUT
; REQUEST

                MASK EQU OFFFDH
CHECK_STATUS:   INPUT  AL, DX           ; GET 8251A STATUS.
                MOV    AH, AL
                TEST   AH, READ_OR_WRITE_STATUS
                JZ     NEXT_IO
                CALL   ADDRESS
                TEST   AH, READ STATUS
                JZ     WRITE_SERVICE
                CALL   READ
                TEST   AH, WRITE STATUS
                JZ     NEXT_IO
WRITE_SERVICE:  CALL   WRITE
NEXT_IO:        DEC    CX               ; TEST IF DONE.
                JNC    EXIT             ; YES, RESTORE & RETURN.
                AND    DX, MASK         ; REMOVE A1 AND
                ADD    DX, 3            ; INCREMENT ADDRESS.
                OR     DX, 2            ; SELECT STATUS FOR
                JMP    CHECK_STATUS     ; NEXT INPUT.

ADDRESS:        AND    DX, MASK         ; SELECT DATA.
                MOV    BH, DL           ; CONSTRUCT BUFFER
                INC    BH               ; DISPLACEMENT FOR
                SHR    BH               ; THIS DEVICE.
                XOR    BL, BL           ; BX IS THE DISPLACEMENT.
                RET

READ:           INPUT AL, DX                        ; READ CHARACTER.
                MOV SI, READ_BUFFERS [BX]           ; GET CHARACTER POINTER.
                MOV READ_BUFFERS [BX + SI], AL      ; STORE CHARACTER.
                INC READ_BUFFERS [BX]               ; INCR CHARACTER POINTER.
                CMP AL, EOT                         ; END OF TRANSMISSION?
                JNZ CONT_READ
                CALL DISABLE READ                   ; YES, DISABLE RECEIVER.
                CONT_READ:  RET                     ; SEND MESSAGE THAT INPUT
                                                    ; IS READY.
```

Figure 4E2.



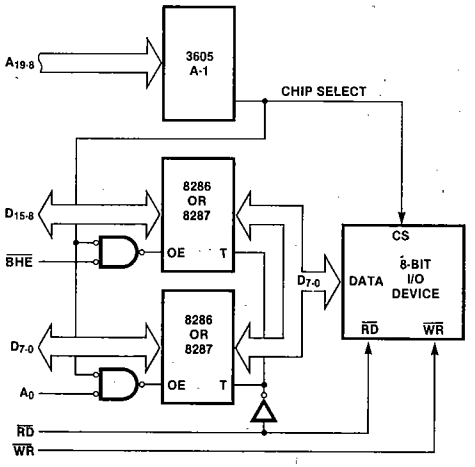
TRANSFER 256 BYTE BLOCKS TO THE I/O DEVICE

THE ADDRESS SPACE ASSIGNED TO THE I/O DEVICE IS

	A19		A8 | A7	A0
FROM	← BASE	ADDRESS →	← 0's →	
THRU	← BASE	ADDRESS →	← 1's →	

MEMORY DATA NEED NOT BE ALIGNED TO EVEN ADDRESS BOUNDARIES
I/O TRANSFERS MUST BE WORD TRANSFERS TO EVEN ADDRESS BOUNDARIES

Figure 4E3. Block Transfer to 16-Bit I/O Using 8086 String Primatives



ADDRESS ASSIGNMENT SAME AS PREVIOUS EXAMPLE. 16-BIT BUS IS MULTIPLEXED ONTO AN 8-BIT PERIPHERAL BUS.

Figure 4E4. Block Transfer to 8-Bit I/O Using 8086 String Primatives

```
                ; DEFINE THE I/O ADDRESS SPACE
                 I/O SEGMENT
                 ORG BLOCK_ADDRESS
I/O_BLOCK:       DW 128 DUP (?)
                 I/O ENDS

                ; ASSUME THE DATA IS FROM THE CURRENT
                ; DATA SEGMENT
                 CLD                        ; DF = FORWARD
                 LES DI, I/O_BLOCK_ADDRESS  ; I/O BLOCK ADDRESS
                                            ; CONTAINS THE ADDRESS
                                            ; OF I/O BLOCK
                 MOV CX, BLOCK_LENGTH
                 MOV SI, SOURCE_ADDRESS
                 MOVS I/O BLOCK             ; PERFORM WORD TRANSFERS

                ; END CODE EXAMPLE
```

NOTE THE CODE IS CAPABLE OF PERFORMING BYTE TRANSFERS BY CHANGING THE I/O BLOCK DEFINITION FROM 128 WORD TO 256 BYTES

Figure 4E5. Code for Block Transfers

5. INTERFACING WITH MEMORIES

Figure 5.1 is a general block diagram of an 8086 memory. The basic characteristics of the diagram are the partitioning of the 16-bit word memory into high and low 8-bit banks on the upper and lower halves of the data bus and inclusion of $\overline{BHE}$ and A0 in the selection of the banks. Specific implementations depend on the type of memory and the system configuration.

5A. ROM and EPROM

The easiest devices to interface to the system are ROM and EPROM. Their byte format provides a simple bus interface and since they are read only devices, A0 and $\overline{BHE}$ need not be included in their chip enable/select decoding (chip enable is similar to chip select but additionally determines if the device is in active or standby power mode). The address lines connected to the devices start with A1 and continue up to the maximum number the device can accept, leaving the remaining address lines for chip enable/select decoding. To connect the devices directly to the multiplexed bus, they must have output enables. The output enable is also necessary to avoid bus contention in other configurations. Figure 5A1 shows the bus connections for ROM and EPROM memories. No special decode techniques are required for generating chip enables/selects. Each valid decode selects one device on the upper and lower halves of bus to allow byte and word access. Byte access is achieved by reading the full word onto the bus with the 8086 only accepting the desired byte. For the minimum mode 8086, if $\overline{RD}$, $\overline{WR}$ and M/$\overline{IO}$ are not decoded to form separate commands for memory and I/O, and the I/O space overlaps the memory space assigned to the EPROM/ROM then M/$\overline{IO}$ (high active) must be a condition of chip enable/select decode. The output enable is controlled by the system memory read signal.

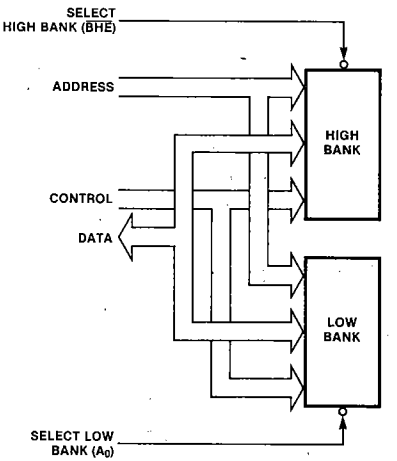
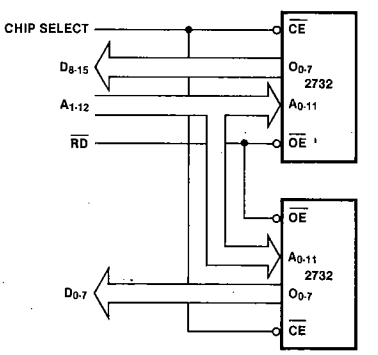


Figure 5.1. 8086 Memory Array



NOTE A_0 AND $\overline{BHE}$ ARE NOT USED.

Figure 5A1. EPROM/ROM Bus Interface

Static ROM's and EPROM's have only four parameters to evaluate when determining their compatibility to the system. The parameters, equations and evaluation techniques given in the I/O section are also applicable to these devices. The relationship of parameters is given in Table 5A1. TACC and TCE are related to the same equation and differ only by the delay associated with the chip enable/select decoder. As an example, consider a 2716 EPROM memory residing on the multiplexed bus of a minimum mode configuration:

TACC = 3TCLCL – 140 – address buffer delay = 430 ns
(8282 = 30 ns max delay)

TCE = TACC – decoder delay = 412 ns
(8205 decoder delay = 18 ns)

TOE = 2TCLCL – 195 = 205 ns

TDF = = 155 ns

TABLE 5A1. EPROM/ROM PARAMETERS

TOE — Output Enable to Valid Data ≡ TRLDV
TACC — Address to Valid Data ≡ TAVDV
TCE — Chip Enable to Valid Data ≡ TSLDV
TDF — Output Enable High to Output Float ≡ TRHDZ

The results are the times the system configuration requires of the component for full speed compatibility with the system. Comparing these times with 2716 parameter limits indicates the 2716-2 will work with no wait states while the 2716 will require one wait state. Table 5A2 demonstrates EPROM/ROM compatibility for the configurations presented in the I/O section. Before designing a ROM or EPROM memory system, refer to AP-30 for additional information on design techniques that give the system an upgrade path from 16K to 32K and 64K devices.

TABLE 5A2. COMPATIBLE EPROM/ROM (5 MHz 8086)

	Configuration			
	Minimum Mode		Maximum Mode	
	Unbuffered	Buffered	Buffered	Fully Buffered
2716-1	✓	✓	✓	✓
2716-2	✓	1W	1W	1W
2732	1W	1W	1W	1W
2332	✓	✓	✓	✓
2364	✓	✓	✓	✓

5B. Static RAM

Interfacing static RAM to the system introduces several new requirements to the memory design. A0 and $\overline{BHE}$ must be included in the chip select/chip enable decoding of the devices and write timing must be considered in the compatibility analysis.

For each device, the data bus connections must be restricted to either the upper or lower half of the data bus. Devices like the 2114 or 2142 must not straddle the upper and lower halves of the data bus (Fig. 5B1). To allow selecting either the upper byte, lower byte or full 16-bit word for a write operation, $\overline{BHE}$ must be a condition of decode for selecting the upper byte and A0 must be a condition of decode for selecting the lower byte. Figure 5B2 gives several selection techniques for devices with single chip selects and no output enables (2114, 2141, 2147). Figure 5B3 gives selection techniques for devices with chip selects and output enables.

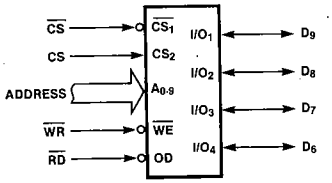


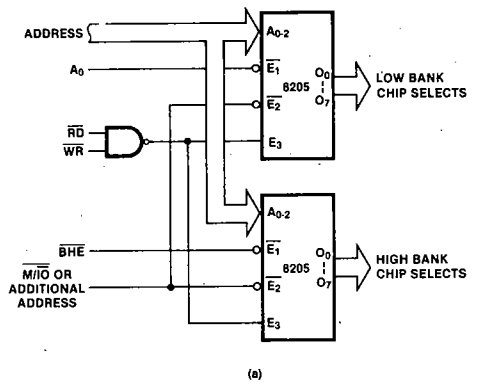
Figure 5B1. Incorrect Connection of 2142 Across Byte Boundaries

The first group requires inclusion of A0 and $\overline{BHE}$ to decode or enable the chip selects. Since these memories do not have output enables, read and write are used as enabies for chip select generation to prevent bus contention. If read and write are not used to enable the chip selects, devices with common input/output pins (like the 2114) will be subjected to severe bus contention between chip select and write active. For devices with separate input/output lines (like 2141, 2147), the outputs can be externally buffered with the buffer enable controlled by read. This solution will only allow bus contention between memory devices in the array during chip select transition periods. These techniques are considered in more detail in Section 2C.

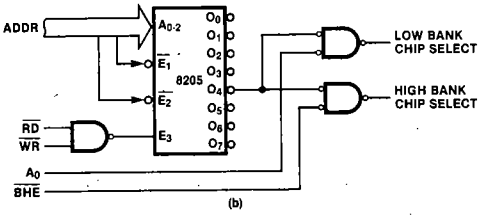
For devices with output enables (2142), write may be gated with $\overline{BHE}$ and A0 to provide upper and lower bank write strobes. This simplifies chip select decoding by eliminating $\overline{BHE}$ and A0 as a condition of decode. Although both devices are selected during a byte write operation, only one will receive a write strobe. No bus contention will exist during the write since a read command must be issued to enable the memory output drivers.

If multiple chip selects are available at the device, $\overline{BHE}$ and A0 may directly control device selection. This allows normal chip select decoding of the address space and direct connection of the read and write commands to the devices. Alternately, the multiple chip select inputs of the device could directly decode the address space (linear select) and be combined with the separate write strobe technique to minimize the control circuitry needed to generate chip selects.

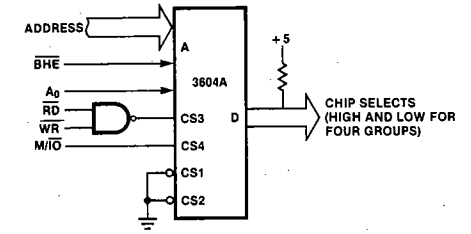
As with the EPROM's and ROM's, if separate commands are not provided for memory and I/O in the minimum mode 8086 and the address spaces overlap, M/$\overline{IO}$ (high active) must be a condition of chip select decode. Also, the address lines connected to the memory devices must start with A1 rather than A0.



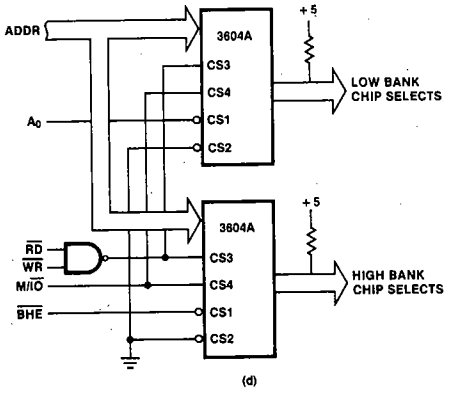
(a)



(b)

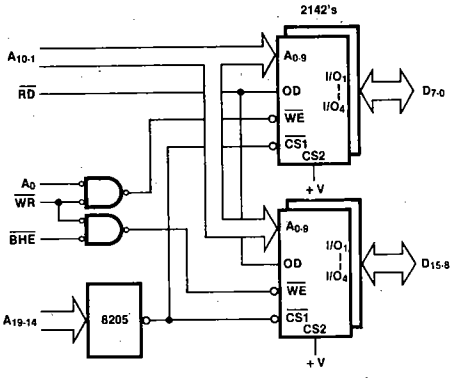


(c)

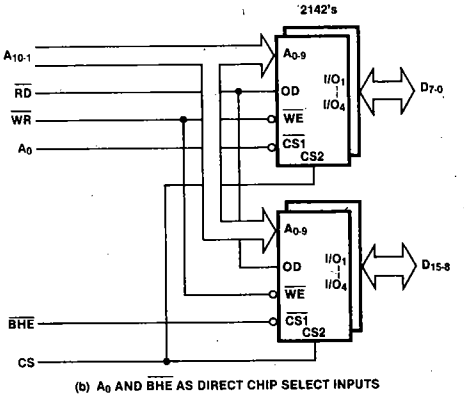


(d)

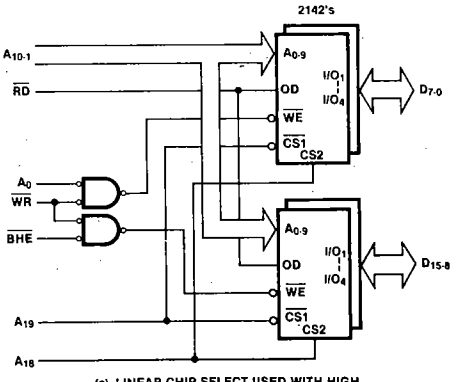
Figure 5B2. Generating Chip Selects for Devices without Output Enables



(a) HIGH AND LOW BANK WRITE STROBES



(b) A_0 AND $\overline{BHE}$ AS DIRECT CHIP SELECT INPUTS



(c) LINEAR CHIP SELECT USED WITH HIGH AND LOW BANK WRITE STROBES

Figure 5B3. Chip Selection for Devices with Output Enables

For analysis of RAM compatibility, the write timing parameters listed in Table 5B1 may also need to be considered (depending on the RAM device being considered). The CPU clock relative timing is given in Table 5B2. The equations specify the device requirements at the CPU and provide a base for determining device requirements in other configurations. As an example consider the write timing requirements of a 2142 in a maximum mode buffered 8086 system (Figure 5B4). The 2142 write parameters that must be analyzed are TWA advanced write pulse width, TWR write release time, TDWA data to write time overlap and TDH data hold from write time.

TWA = 2TCLCL – TCLMLmax + TCLMHmin = 375 ns.
TWR = 2TCLCL – TCLMHmax + TCLLHmin + TSHOVmin = 170 ns.
TDWA = 2TCLCL – TCLDVmax + TCLMHmin – TIVOVmax = 265 ns.
TDH = TCLCH – TCLMHmax + TCHDXmin + TIVOVmin = 95 ns.

TABLE 5B1. TYPICAL WRITE TIMING PARAMETERS

TW — Write Pulse Width
TWR — Write Release (Address Hold From End of Write)
TDW — Data and Write Pulse Overlap
TDH — Data Hold From End of Write
TAW — Address Valid to End of Write
TCW — Chip Select to End of Write
TASW — Address Valid to Beginning of Write

TABLE 5B2. CYCLE DEPENDENT WRITE PARAMETERS FOR RAM MEMORIES

(a) Minimum Mode
TW = TWLWH = 2TCLCL – 60 = 340 ns
TWR = TCLCL – TCVCTXmax + TCLLHmin = 90 ns
TDW = 2TCLCL – TCLDVmax + TCVCTXmin = 300 ns
TDH = TWHDX = 68 ns
TAW = 3TCLCL – TCLAVmax + TCVCTXmin = 500 ns
TCW = TAW – Chip Select Decode
TASW = TCLCL – TCLAVmax + TCVCTXmin = 100 ns
(b) Maximum Mode
TW = TCLCL – TCLMLmax + TCLMHmin = 175 ns
TWR = TCLCL – TCLMHmax + TCLLHmin = 165 ns
TDW = TW = 175 ns
TDH = TCLCHmin – TCLMHmax + TCHDXmin = 93 ns
TAW = 3TCLCL – TCLAVmax + TCLMHmin = 500 ns
TCW = TAW – Chip Select Decode
TASW = 2TCLCL – TCLAVmax + TCLMLmin = 300 ns
TWA* = TW + TCLCL = 375 ns
TDWA* = 2TCLCL – TCLDVmax + TCLMHmin = 300 ns
TASWA* = TASW – TCLCL = 100 ns
*Relative to Advanced Write.

Comparing these results with the 2142 family indicates the standard 2142 write timing is fully compatible with this 8086 configuration. Read timing analysis is also necessary to completely determine compatibility of the devices.

5C. Dynamic RAM

Dynamic RAM is perhaps the most complex device to design into a system. To relieve the engineer of most of this burden, Intel provides the 8202 dynamic RAM controller as part of the 8086 family of peripheral devices. This section will discuss using the 8202 with the 8086 to build a dynamic memory system for an 8086 system. For additional information on the 8202, refer to the 8202 data sheet (9800873) and application note AP-45 Using the 8202 Dynamic RAM Controller (9800809A).

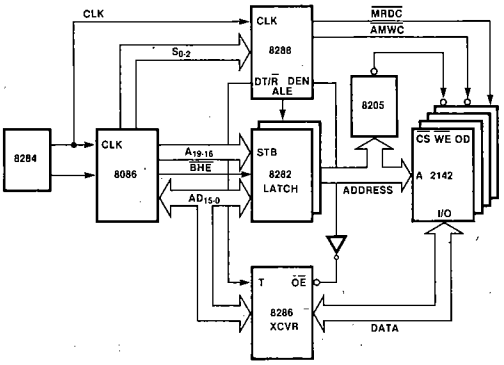


Figure 5B4. Sample Configuration for Compatibility Analysis Example

5.C.1 Standard 8086-8202 Interconnect

Figure 5.C.1.1 shows a standard interconnection for an 8202 into an 8086 system. The configuration accommodates 64K words (128K bytes) of dynamic RAM addressable as words or bytes. To access the RAM, the 8086 initiates a bus cycle with an address that selects the 8202 (via $\overline{PCS}$) and the appropriate transfer command ($\overline{MRDC}$ or $\overline{MWTC}$). If the 8202 is not performing a refresh cycle, the access starts immediately, otherwise, the 8086 must wait for completion of the refresh. $\overline{XACK}$ from the 8202 is connected to the 8284 RDY input to force the CPU to wait until the RAM cycle is completed before the CPU can terminate the bus cycle. This effectively synchronizes the asynchronous events of refresh and CPU bus cycles. The normal write command ($\overline{MWTC}$) is used rather than the advanced command ($\overline{AMWC}$) to guarantee the data is valid at the dynamic RAMS before the write command is issued. The gating of $\overline{WE}$ with A0 and $\overline{BHE}$ provides selective write strobes to the upper and lower banks of memory to allow byte and word write operations. The logic which generates the strobe for the data latches allows read data to propagate to the system as soon as the data is available and latches the data on the trailing edge of $\overline{CAS}$.

DETAILED TIMING

Read Cycle

For no wait state operation, the 8086 requires data to be valid from $\overline{MRDC}$ in:

2TCLCL – TCLML – TDVCL – buffer delays = 291 ns.

Since the 8202 is $\overline{CAS}$ access limited, we need only examine $\overline{CAS}$ access time. The 8202/2118 guarantees data valid from 8202 $\overline{RD}$ low to be:

(tph + 3tp + 100 ns) 8202 TCC delay + TCAC for the 2118

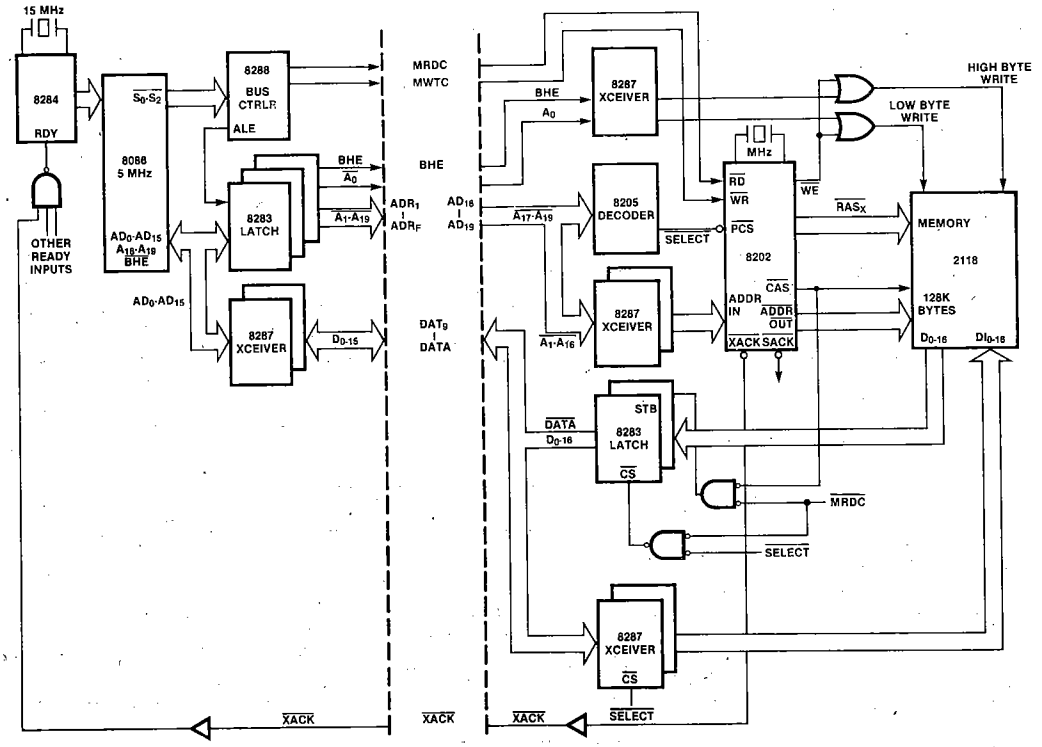


Figure 5C1.1. 5 MHz 8086/8202/128K Byte System — Double Data, Control and Address Buffering (Note: Bus driver on 8202 is not needed if less than 64K bytes are used)

For a 25 MHz 8202 and 2118-3, we get 297 ns which is insufficient for no wait state operation. If only 64K bytes are accessed, the 8202 requires only (tph + 3tp + 85 ns) giving 282 ns access and no wait states required. Refer to Figure 5.C.1.2 and 5C.1.3 for timing information on the 8202 and 2118.

Write Cycle

An important consideration for dynamic RAM write cycles is to guarantee data to the RAM is valid when both $\overline{CAS}$ and $\overline{WE}$ are active. For the 2118, if $\overline{WE}$ is valid prior to $\overline{CAS}$, the data setup is to $\overline{CAS}$ and if $\overline{CAS}$ is valid before $\overline{WE}$ (as would occur during a read modify write cycle) the data setup time is to $\overline{WE}$. For the 8202, the $\overline{WR}$ to $\overline{CAS}$ delay is analyzed to determine the data setup time to $\overline{CAS}$ inherently provided by the 8202 command to $\overline{RAS}$/$\overline{CAS}$ timing. The minimum delay from $\overline{WR}$ to $\overline{CAS}$ is:

$$TCCmin = tph + 2tp + 25 = 127 \text{ ns } @ \text{ 25 MHz}$$

Subtracting buffer delays and data setup at the 2118, we have 83 ns to generate valid data after the write command is issued by the CPU (in this case the 8288). Since the 8086 will not guarantee valid data until TCLAVmax – TCLMLmin = 100 ns from the advanced write signal, the normal write signal is used. The normal write $\overline{MWTC}$ guarantees data is valid 100 ns before it is active. The worst case write pulse width is approximately 175 ns which is sufficient for all 2118's.

Synchronization

To force the 8086 to wait during refresh the $\overline{XACK}$ or $\overline{SACK}$ lines must be returned to the 8284 ready input. The maximum delay from $\overline{RD}$ to $\overline{SACK}$ (if the 8202 is not performing refresh) is TAC = tp + 40 = 80 ns. To prevent a wait state at the 8086, RDY must be valid at the 8284 TCLCHmin – TCLMLmax – TR1VCLmax = 48 ns after the command is active. This implies that under worst case conditions, one wait state will be inserted for every read cycle. Since $\overline{MWTC}$ does not occur until one clock later, two wait states may be inserted for writes.

The $\overline{XACK}$ from command delay will assert RDY TCC + TCX = (tph + 3tp + 100) + (5tp + 20) = 460 ns after the command. This will typically insert one or two wait states.

Unless 2118-3's are used in 64K byte or less memories, $\overline{SACK}$ must not be used since it does not guarantee a wait state. From the previous access time analysis we saw that other configurations required a wait state.

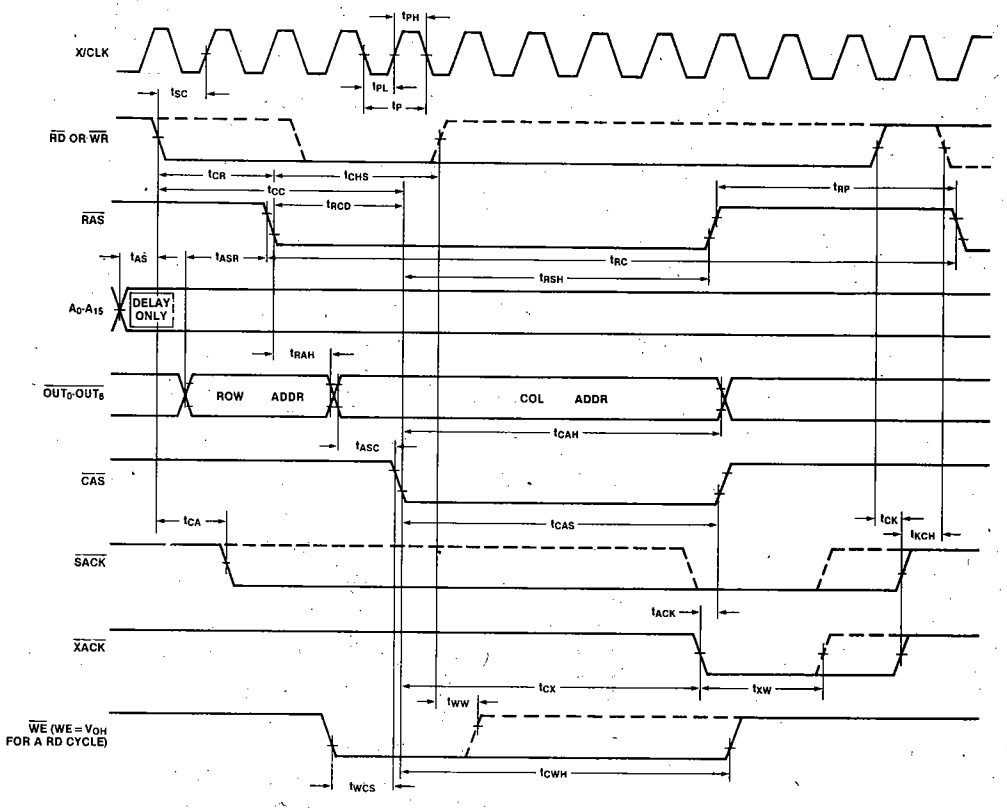


Figure 5C1.2. 8202 Timing Information

A.C. CHARACTERISTICS

$T_A = 0°C$ to $70°C$, $V_{CC} = 5V \pm 10\%$

Measurements made with respect to $RAS_1 - RAS_4$, CAS, WE, $OUT_0 - OUT_6$ are at 2.4V and 0.8V. All other pins are measured at 1.5V.

Loading: 64 Devices

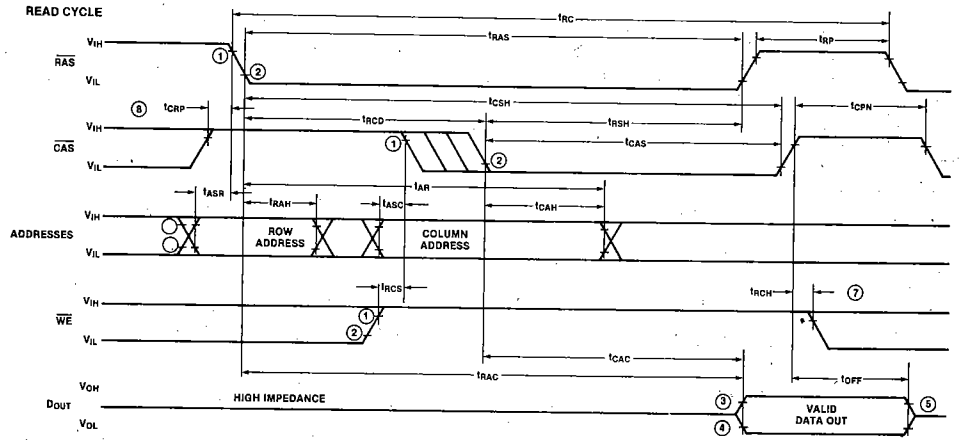
$\overline{SACK}$,$\overline{XACK}$	CL = 30 pF
$\overline{OUT_0} - \overline{OUT_6}$	CL = 320 pF
$\overline{RAS_1} - \overline{RAS_4}$	CL = 230 pF
$\overline{WE}$	CL = 450 pF
$\overline{CAS}$	CL = 640 pF

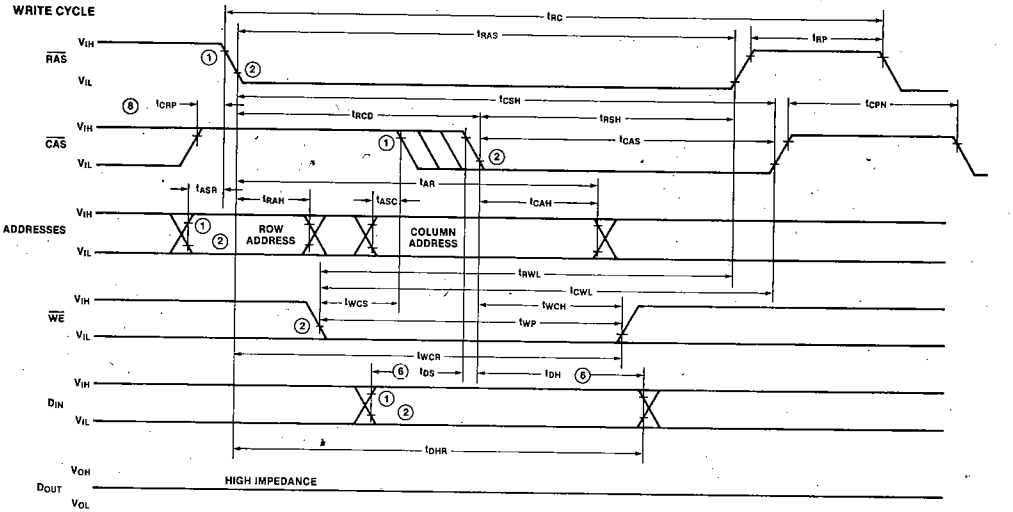
Symbol	Parameter	Min	Max	Units
t_P	Clock (Internal/External) Period (See Note 1)	40	54	ns
t_{RC}	Memory Cycle Time	$10\ t_P - 30$	$12\ t_P$	ns
t_{RAH}	Row Address Hold Time	$t_P - 10$		ns
t_{ASR}	Row Address Setup Time	t_{PH}		ns
t_{CAH}	Column Address Hold Time	$5\ t_P$		ns
t_{ASC}	Column Address Setup Time	$t_P - 35$		ns
t_{RCD}	$\overline{RAS}$ to $\overline{CAS}$ Delay Time	$2\ t_P - 10$	$2\ t_P + 45$	ns
t_{WCS}	$\overline{WE}$ Setup to $\overline{CAS}$	$t_P - 40$		ns
t_{RSH}	$\overline{RAS}$ Hold Time	$5\ t_P - 30$		ns
t_{CAS}	$\overline{CAS}$ Pulse Width	$5\ t_P - 30$		ns
t_{RP}	$\overline{RAS}$ Precharge Time (See Note 2)	$4\ t_P - 30$		ns
t_{WCH}	$\overline{WE}$ Hold Time to $\overline{CAS}$	$5\ t_P - 35$		ns
t_{REF}	Internally Generated Refresh to Refresh Time 64 Cycle 128 Cycle	 $548\ t_P$ $264\ t_P$	 $576\ t_P$ $288\ t_P$	 ns ns
t_{CR}	$\overline{RD}$, $\overline{WR}$ to $\overline{RAS}$ Delay	$t_{PH} + 30$	$t_{PH} + t_P + 75$	ns
t_{CC}	$\overline{RD}$, $\overline{WR}$ to $\overline{CAS}$ Delay	$t_{PH} + 2\ t_P + 25$	$t_{PH} + 3\ t_P + 100$	ns
t_{RFR}	REFRQ to $\overline{RAS}$ Delay	$1.5\ t_P + 30$	$2.5\ t_P + 100$	ns
t_{AS}	A_0—A_{15} to $\overline{RD}$, $\overline{WR}$ Setup Time (See Note 4)	0		ns
t_{CA}	$\overline{RD}$, $\overline{WR}$ to $\overline{SACK}$ Leading Edge		$t_P + 40$	ns
t_{CK}	$\overline{RD}$, $\overline{WR}$ to $\overline{XACK}$, $\overline{SACK}$ Trailing Edge Delay		30	ns
t_{KCH}	$\overline{RD}$, $\overline{WR}$ Inactive Hold to $\overline{SACK}$ Trailing Edge	10		ns
t_{SC}	$\overline{RD}$, $\overline{WR}$, $\overline{PCS}$ to X/CLK Setup Time (See Note 3)	15		ns
t_{CX}	$\overline{CAS}$ to $\overline{XACK}$ Time	$5\ t_P - 40$	$5\ t_P + 20$	ns
t_{ACK}	$\overline{XACK}$ Leading Edge to $\overline{CAS}$ Trailing Edge Time	10		ns
t_{XW}	$\overline{XACK}$ Pulse Width	$2\ t_P - 25$		ns
t_{LL}	REFRQ Pulse Width	20		ns
t_{CHS}	$\overline{RD}$, $\overline{WR}$, $\overline{PCS}$ Active Hold to $\overline{RAS}$	0		ns
t_{WW}	$\overline{WR}$ to $\overline{WE}$ Propagation Delay	8	50	ns
t_{AL}	S_1 to ALE Setup Time	40		ns
t_{LA}	S_1 to ALE Hold Time	$2\ t_P + 40$		ns
t_{PL}	External Clock Low Time	15		ns
t_{PH}	External Clock High Time	22		ns
t_{PH}	External Clock High Time for $V_{CC} = 5V \pm 5\%$	18		ns

Notes:

1. t_P minimum determines maximum oscillator frequency.
   t_P maximum determines minimum frequency to maintain 2 ms refresh rate and t_{RP} minimum.
2. To achieve the minimum time between the $\overline{RAS}$ of a memory cycle and the $\overline{RAS}$ of a refresh cycle, such as a transparent refresh, REFRQ should be pulsed in the previous memory cycle.
3. t_{SC} is not required for proper operation which is in agreement with the other specs, but can be used to synchronize external signals with X/CLK if it is desired.
4. If t_{AS} is less than 0 then the only impact is that t_{ASR} decreases by a corresponding amount.

Figure 5C1.2. 8202 Timing Information (Con't)





NOTES: 1,2. $V_{IH\ MIN}$ AND $V_{IL\ MAX}$ ARE REFERENCE LEVELS FOR MEASURING TIMING OF INPUT SIGNALS.
3,4. $V_{OH\ MIN}$ AND $V_{OL\ MAX}$ ARE REFERENCE LEVELS FOR MEASURING TIMING OF D_{OUT}.
5. t_{OFF} IS MEASURED TO $|I_{OUT}| < |I_{OL}|$.
6. t_{DS} AND t_{DH} ARE REFERENCED TO $\overline{CAS}$ OR $\overline{WE}$, WHICHEVER OCCURS LAST.
†. t_{RCH} IS REFERENCED TO THE TRAILING EDGE OF $\overline{CAS}$ OR $\overline{RAS}$, WHICHEVER OCCURS FIRST.
8. t_{CRP} REQUIREMENT IS ONLY APPLICABLE FOR $\overline{RAS}$/$\overline{CAS}$ CYCLES PRECEDED BY A $\overline{CAS}$-ONLY CYCLE (i.e., FOR SYSTEMS WHERE $\overline{CAS}$ HAS NOT BEEN DECODED WITH $\overline{RAS}$).

Figure 5C1.3. 2118 Family Timing

A.C. CHARACTERISTICS[1,2,3]

$T_A = 0°C$ to $70°C$, $V_{DD} = 5V \pm 10\%$, $V_{SS} = 0V$, unless otherwise noted.

READ, WRITE, READ-MODIFY-WRITE AND REFRESH CYCLES

Symbol	Parameter	2118-3		2118-4		2118-7		Unit	Notes
		Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.		
t_{RAC}	Access Time From $\overline{RAS}$		100		120		150	ns	4,5
t_{CAC}	Access Time from $\overline{CAS}$		55		65		80	ns	4,5,6
t_{REF}	Time Between Refresh		2		2		2	ms	
t_{RP}	$\overline{RAS}$ Precharge Time	110		120		135		ns	
t_{CPN}	$\overline{CAS}$ Precharge Time (non-page cycles)	50		55		70		ns	
t_{CRP}	$\overline{CAS}$ to $\overline{RAS}$ Precharge Time	0		0		0		ns	
t_{RCD}	$\overline{RAS}$ to $\overline{CAS}$ Delay Time	25	45	25	55	25	70	ns	7
t_{RSH}	$\overline{RAS}$ Hold Time	70		85		105		ns	
t_{CSH}	$\overline{CAS}$ Hold Time	100		120		165		ns	
t_{ASR}	Row Address Set-Up Time	0		0		0		ns	
t_{RAH}	Row Address Hold Time	15		15		15		ns	
t_{ASC}	Column Address Set-Up Time	0		0		0		ns	
t_{CAH}	Column Address Hold Time	15		15		20		ns	
t_{AR}	Column Address Hold Time to $\overline{RAS}$	60		70		90		ns	
t_T	Transition Time (Rise and Fall)	3	50	3	50	3	50	ns	8
t_{OFF}	Output Buffer Turn Off Delay	0	45	0	50	0	60	ns	
READ AND REFRESH CYCLES									
T_{RC}	Random Read Cycle Time	235		270		320		ns	
t_{RAS}	$\overline{RAS}$ Pulse Width	115	10000	140	10000	175	10000	ns	
t_{CAS}	$\overline{CAS}$ Pulse Width	55	10000	65	10000	95	10000	ns	
t_{RCS}	Read Command Set-Up Time	0		0		0		ns	
t_{RCH}	Read Command Hold Time	0		0		0		ns	
WRITE CYCLE									
t_{RC}	Random Write Cycle Time	235		270		320		ns	
t_{RAS}	$\overline{RAS}$ Pulse Width	115	10000	140	10000	175	10000	ns	
t_{CAS}	$\overline{CAS}$ Pulse Width	55	10000	65	10000	95	10000	ns	
t_{WCS}	Write Command Set-Up Time	0		0		0		ns	9
t_{WCH}	Write Command Hold Time	25		30		45		ns	
t_{WCR}	Write Command Hold Time, to $\overline{RAS}$	70		85		115		ns	
t_{WP}	Write Command Pulse Width	25		30		50		ns	
t_{RWL}	Write Command to $\overline{RAS}$ Lead Time	60		65		110		ns	
t_{CWL}	Write Command to $\overline{CAS}$ Lead Time	45		50		100		ns	
t_{DS}	Data-In Set-Up Time	0		0		0		ns	
t_{DH}	Data-In Hold Time	25		30		45		ns	
t_{DHR}	Data-In Hold Time, to $\overline{RAS}$	70		85		115		ns	
READ-MODIFY-WRITE CYCLE									
t_{RWC}	Read-Modify-Write Cycle Time	285		320		410		ns	
t_{RRW}	RMW Cycle $\overline{RAS}$ Pulse Width	165	10000	190	10000	265	10000	ns	
t_{CRW}	RMW Cycle $\overline{CAS}$ Pulse Width	105	10000	120	10000	185	10000	ns	
t_{RWD}	$\overline{RAS}$ to $\overline{WE}$ Delay	100		120		150		ns	9
t_{CWD}	$\overline{CAS}$ to $\overline{WE}$ Delay	55		65		80		ns	9

NOTES:
1. All voltages referenced to V_{SS}.
2. Eight cycles are required after power-up or prolonged periods (greater than 2 ms) of $\overline{RAS}$ inactivity before proper device operation is achieved. Any 8 cycles which perform refresh are adequate for this purpose.
3. A.C. Characteristics assume $t_T = 5$ ns.
4. Assume that $t_{RCD} \leq t_{RCD}$ (max.). If t_{RCD} is greater than t_{RCD} (max.) then t_{RAC} will increase by the amount that t_{RCD} exceeds t_{RCD} (max.).
5. Load = 2 TTL loads and 100 pF.
6. Assumes $t_{RCD} \geq t_{RCD}$ (max.).
7. t_{RCD} (max.) is specified as a reference point only; if t_{RCD} is less than t_{RCD} (max.) access time is t_{RAC}, if t_{RCD} is greater than t_{RCD} (max.) access time is $t_{RCD} + t_{CAC}$.
8. t_T is measured between V_{IH} (min.) and V_{IL} (max.).
9. t_{WCS}, t_{CWD} and t_{RWD} are specified as reference points only. If $t_{WCS} \geq t_{WCS}$ (min.) the cycle is an early write cycle and the data out pin will remain high impedance throughout the entire cycle. If $t_{CWD} \geq t_{CWD}$ (min.) and $t_{RWD} \geq t_{RWD}$ (min.), the cycle is a read-modify-write cycle and the data out will contain the data read from the selected address. If neither of the above conditions is satisfied, the condition of the data out is indeterminate.

Figure 5C1.3. 2118 Family Timing (Con't)

5.C.2 Enhanced Operation

Two problems are evident from the previous investigation:

1) $\overline{SACK}$ timing from command will not allow reliable operation while $\overline{XACK}$ is not active early enough to prevent wait states.

2) The normal write command required to guarantee data setup is not enabled until the CPU has sampled READY thereby forcing multiple wait states during write operations.

The first problem could be resolved if an early command could be generated that would guarantee $\overline{SACK}$ was valid when READY was sampled and $\overline{SACK}$ to data valid satisfied the CPU requirements. Figure 5.C.2.1 is a circuit which provides an early read command derived from the maximum mode status. The early command is enabled from the trailing edge of ALE and disabled on the trailing edge of the normal command. The command provides an additional TCHCLmin – TCHLLmax + TCLMLmax – circuit delays = 53 ns of access time and time to generate RDY from the early command. If we go back to our previous equations, early command to valid data at the CPU is now:

TCHCLmin – TCHLLmax + 2TCLCL – TDVCLmax – buffer and circuit delays = 333 ns

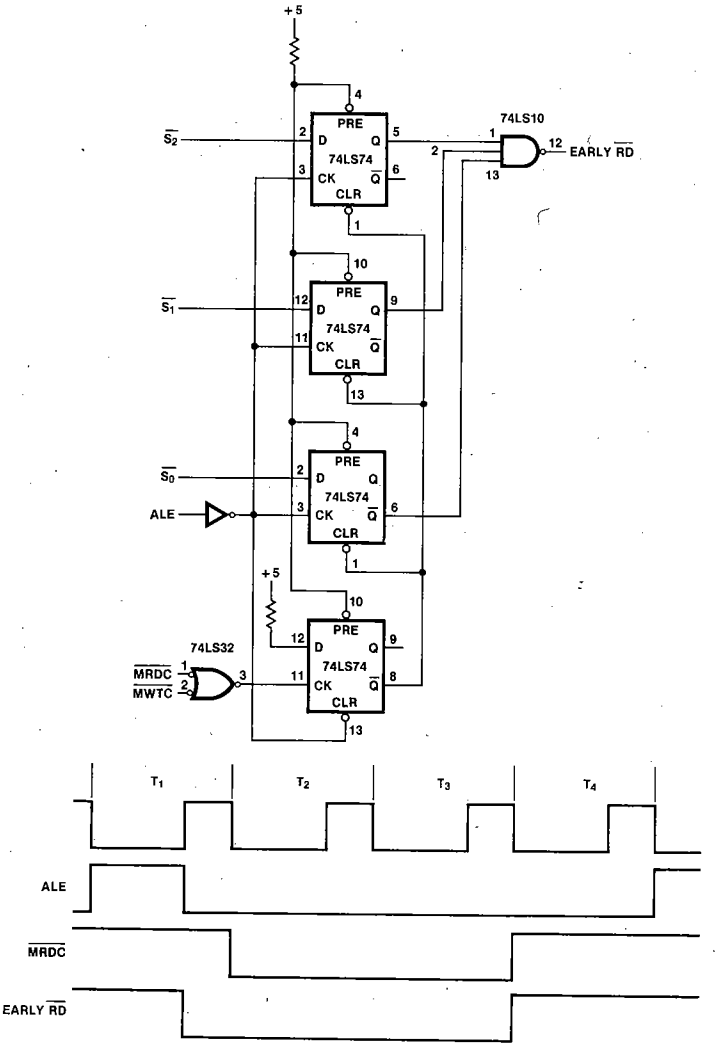


Figure 5C2.1. Early Read and Write Command Generation

We can now use the slowest 2118 which gives 8202 and 2118 access of 320 ns. Early command to RDY timing is TCLCL – TCHLLmax – circuit delays – TR1VCLmax = 115 ns and provides 35 ns of margin beyond the 8202 command to $\overline{SACK}$ delay.

The write timing of the 8202 and write data valid timing of the 8086 do not allow use of an early write command. However, if the 8202 clock is reduced from 25 MHz to 20 MHz and $\overline{WE}$ to the RAM's is gated with $\overline{CAS}$, the advanced write command ($\overline{AMWC}$) may be used. At 20 MHz the minimum command to $\overline{CAS}$ delay is 148 ns while the maximum data valid delay is 144 ns.

The reduced 8202 clock frequency still satisfies no wait state read operation from early read and will insert no more than one wait state for write (assuming no conflict with refresh). 20 MHz 8202 operation will however require using the 2118-4 to satisfy read access time.

Note that slowing the 8202 to 22.2 MHz guarantees valid data within 10 ns after $\overline{CAS}$ and allows using the 2118-7. Since this analysis is totally based on worst case minimum and maximum delays, the designer should evaluate the timing requirements of his specific implementation.

It should be noted that the 8202 $\overline{SACK}$ is equivalent to $\overline{XACK}$ timing if the cycle being executed was delayed by refresh. Delaying $\overline{SACK}$ until $\overline{XACK}$ time causes the CPU to enter wait states until the cycle is completed. If the cycle is a read cycle, the $\overline{XACK}$ timing guarantees data is valid at the CPU before RDY is issued to the CPU.

The use of the early command signals also solves a problem not mentioned previously. The cycle rate of the 8202 @ 20 MHz requires that commands (from leading edge to leading edge) be separated by a minimum of 695 ns. The maximum mode 8086 however may issue a read command 600 ns after the normal write command. For the early read command and advanced write command, 725 ns are guaranteed between commands.

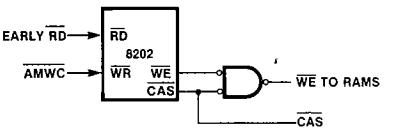


Figure 5C2.2. Delayed Write to Dynamic RAMs

APPENDIX I
BUS CONTENTION AND ITS EFFECT ON SYSTEM INTEGRITY

SYSTEM ARCHITECTURE

As higher performance microprocessors have become available, the architecture of microprocessor systems has been evolving, again placing demands on memory. For many years, system designers have been plagued with the problem of bus contention when connecting multiple memories to a common data bus. There have been various schemes for avoiding the problem, but device manufacturers have been unable to design internal circuits that would guarantee that one memory device would be "off" the bus before another device was selected. With small memories (512x8 and 1Kx8), it has been traditional to connect all the system address lines together and utilize the difference between t_{ACC} and t_{CO} to perform a decode to select the correct device (as shown in Figure 1).

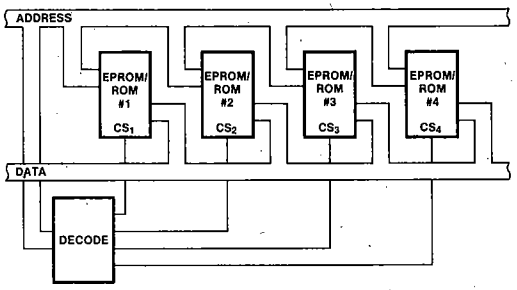


Figure 1. Single Control Line Architecture

With the 1702A, the chip select to output delay was only 100 ns shorter than the address access time; or to state it another way, the t_{ACC} time was 1000 ns while the t_{CO} time was 900 ns. The 1702A t_{ACC} performance of 1000 ns was suitable for the 4004 series microprocessors, but the 8080 processor required that the corresponding numbers be reduced to $t_{ACC} = 450$ ns and $t_{CO} = 120$ ns. This allowed a substantial improvement in performance over the 4004 series of microprocessors, but placed a substantial burden on the memory. The 2708 was developed to be compatible with the 8080 both in access time and power supply requirements. A portion of each 8080 machine cycle time had to be devoted to the architecture of the system decoding scheme used. This devoted portion of the machine cycle included the time required for the system controller (8224) to perform its function before the actual decode process could begin.

Let's pause here and examine the actual decode scheme that was used so we can understand how the control functions that a memory device requires are related to system architecture.

The 2708 can be used to illustrate the problem of having a single control line. The 2708 has only one read control function, chip select ($\overline{CS}$), which is very fast ($t_{CO} = 120$ ns) with respect to the overall access time ($t_{ACC} = 450$ ns) of the 2708. It is this time difference (330 ns) that is used to perform the decode function, as illustrated in Figure 2. The scheme works well and does not limit system performance, but it does lead to the possibility of bus contention.

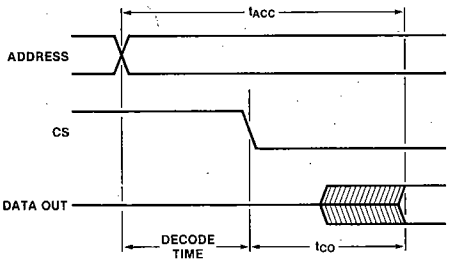


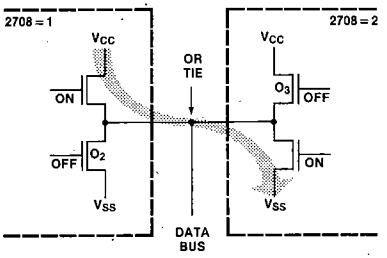
Figure 2. Single Line Control Architecture

BUS CONTENTION

There are actually two problems with the scheme described in the previous section. First, if one device in a multiple memory system has a relatively long deselect time, and a relatively fast decoder is used, it would be possible to have another device selected at the same time. If the two devices thus selected were reading opposite data; that is, device number one reading a HIGH and device number two reading a LOW, the output transistors of the two memory devices would effectively produce a short circuit, as Figure 3 illustrates. In this case, the current path is from V_{CC} on device number one to GND on device number two. This current is limited only by the "on" impedance of the MOS output transistors and can reach levels in excess of 200 mA per device. If the MOS transistors have a lot of "extra" margin, the current is usually not destructive; however, an instantaneous load of 400 mA can produce "glitches" on the V_{CC} supply—glitches large enough to cause standard TTL devices to drop bits or otherwise malfunction, thus causing incorrect address decode or generation.

The second problem with a single control line scheme is more subtle. As previously mentioned, there is only one control function available on the 2708 and any decoding scheme must use it out of necessity. In addition, any inadvertent changes in the state of the high order address lines that are inputs to the decoder will cause a change in the device that is selected. The result is the same as before—bus contention, only from a different source. The deselected device cannot get "off" the bus before the selected one is "on" the bus as the addresses rapidly change state. One approach to solving this problem would be to design (and specify as a maximum) devices

with t_{DF} time less than t_{CO} time, thereby assuring that if one device is selected while another is simultaneously being deselected, there would be some small (20 ns) margin. Even with this solution, the user would not be protected from devices which have very fast t_{CO} times (t_{CO} is specified as a maximum).



RESULTS OF IMPROPER TIMING WHEN OR TYING MULTIPLE MEMORIES.

Figure 3. Results of Improper Timing when OR Tying Multiple Memories

The only sure solution appears to be the use of an external bus driver/transceiver that has an independent enable function. Then that function, not the "device selecting function," or addresses, could control the flow of data "on" and "off" the bus, and any contention problems would be confined to a particular card or area of a large card. In fact, many systems are implemented that way—the use of bus drivers is not at all uncommon in large systems where the drive requirements of long, highly capacitive interconnecting lines must be taken into consideration—it also may be the reason why more system designers were not aware of the bus contention problem until they took a previously large (multicard) system and, using an advanced micorprocessor and higher density memory devices, combined them all on one card, thereby eliminating the requirement for the bus drivers, but experiencing the problem of bus contention as described above.

THE MICROPROCESSOR/MEMORY INTERFACE

From the foregoing discussion, it becomes clear that some new concepts, both with regard to architecture and performance are required. A new generation of two control line devices is called for with general requirements as listed below:

1. Capability to control the data "on" and "off" the system bus, independent of the device selecting function identified above.

2. Access time compatible with the high performance microprocessors that are currently available.

Now let's examine the system architecture that is required to implement the two line control and prevent bus contention. This is shown in the form of a timing diagram (Figure 4). As before, addresses are used to generate the unique device selecting function, but a separate and independent Output Enable (OE) control is now used to gate data "on" and "off" the system data bus. With this scheme, bus contention is completely eliminated as the processor determines the time during which data must be present on the bus and then releases the bus by way of the Output Enable line, thus freeing the bus for use by other devices, either memories or peripheral devices. This type of architecture can be easily accomplished if the memory devices have two control functions, and the system is implemented according to the block diagram shown in Figure 5. It differs from the previous block diagram (shown in Figure 1) in that the control bus, which is connected to all memory Output Enable pins, provides separate and independent control over the data bus. In this way, the microprocessor is always in control of the system; while in the previous system, the microprocessor passed control to the particular memory device and then waited for data to become available. Another way to look at it is, with a single control line the sytem is always asynchronous with respect to microprocessor/memory communications. By using two control lines, the memory is synchronized to the processor.

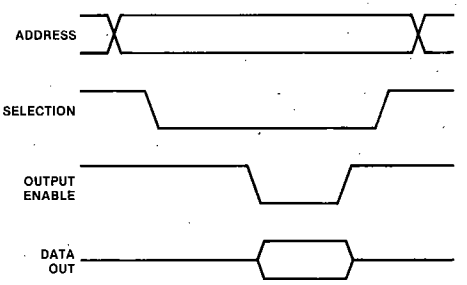


Figure 4. Two Control Line Architecture

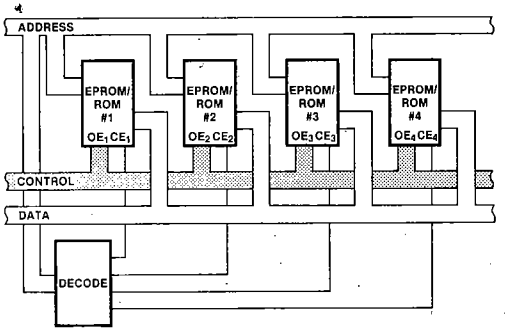


Figure 5. Two Control Line Architecture